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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



SANTO DOMINGO ARCH, QUITO, ECUADOR

JANUARY

1934

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

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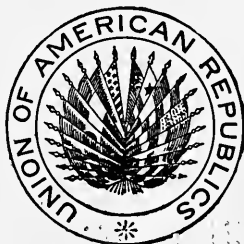
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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; and the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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THE TORRE TAGLE PALACE, LIMA, PERU.

This mansion, the former residence of the Marquises de Torre Tagle and an outstanding example of colonial architecture, has in late years been occupied by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.



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No. 1

LIMA

“THE NOBLE, DISTINGUISHED, AND VERY LOYAL
CITY OF THE KINGS”

By JULIA MACLEAN VIÑAS

Pan American Union Staff

LIMA is a city which has the charm and the prestige of age as well as the modern smartness of asphalt streets and tall buildings. Not only its wealth but the many heroic and curious episodes which crowd its history have made it notable since the day when it was founded by Francisco Pizarro nearly four hundred years ago, two years after he had subjugated Peru and forty-three years after Columbus had discovered America. Visitors cannot but be aware of its storied atmosphere, for if Cuzco represents the glory of the Inca empire, Lima is the symbol of Spanish power in the southern continent. Vast was the extent of the domain governed by the viceroys of Peru. For more than two centuries they ruled the Isthmus of Panama and all the Spanish territory in South America except Venezuela, and for another hundred years outranked all other Spanish officials overseas, although two new viceroyalties had diminished their jurisdiction. Only with the defeat of the enigmatic Viceroy La Serna at Ayacucho was the power of Spain in South America finally broken. The Bolivarian Museum in Magdalena Vieja, a Lima suburb, now guards in a safe the original capitulation which he signed with Sucre, his valiant and generous conqueror, on December 9, 1824.

It was January 6—Epiphany—1535, when three messengers sent by Pizarro from the mountainous interior in search of a city site near the sea arrived at an Indian village on the bank of the Rímac River, situated, it is said, exactly where the main square of Lima is now located. On January 18, Pizarro himself came and with seventy followers, thirteen of whom were Spaniards, founded the “City of the

Kings." It was so called, according to some authorities, in honor of the Three Kings of the East on whose day Pizarro's scouts had reached the chosen location, and according to others, in honor of the Spanish monarchs. The city was laid out in the form of a triangle; the narrow streets, intersecting at right angles, today form the ancient part of Lima. As it has grown it has extended toward the sea eight miles away, and has changed from a small settlement to a metropolis of nearly four hundred thousand inhabitants, with handsome streets and tree-lined boulevards.

During its early years, the city grew slowly, but by the seventeenth century it had acquired beauty and renown. It was the



THE MINISTRY OF PROMOTION.

This modern edifice houses the offices of the Department of Promotion, whose duties are concerned with the advancement of commerce and industries, development of natural resources, communications, agriculture, and public works.

capital of Spain in South America; through it flowed streams of gold and silver, commerce thrived, and many of its inhabitants lived in luxury. The University of San Marcos, the oldest in the Americas, had been founded in 1551. The palaces of the nobility had great patios into which their coaches were driven; spacious drawing rooms richly furnished; and facades notable for the balconies of carved wood from which the ladies of the family, in an echo of Moorish customs, could see without being seen—or at least any more than they wished to be seen. A perfect example of such a mansion, one erected in the eighteenth century, has been preserved in Lima by the Peruvian Government. This is the former Torre Tagle Palace, now the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The enchanting tiles which line its



PORTALES DE BOTONEROS.

This row of shops, dating from the seventeenth century, acquired its name from the fact that the first sellers of notions were established there. One tower of the cathedral, which also faces the Plaza, is shown at the left.

patio and stairs were brought from Seville, its carved and beamed ceilings are of heavy dark wood, and its walls, hung with red damask, make an appropriate background for the portraits of its first owners and the magnificent carved furniture of the era. Its two balconies are the most exquisite in Lima.

The visitor to Lima who is staying at the excellent modern hotel on the Plaza de San Martín looks out on a handsome, busy square flanked by imposing modern buildings which preserve the flavor of Lima by their *portales*, or arcades, along the street. In the center is the statue of the Argentine hero who brought troops to the aid of Peru in her struggle for independence and therefore was proclaimed "Protector of Peru." Leaving this square for the ancient Plaza de Armas, the center of the city, one takes the Jirón de la Unión. The use of the word *jirón* for street is a peculiarity of Lima; to the Limeño, a *calle*, the usual Spanish word for street, is only one block of a *jirón*, and every *calle* has its name—somewhat difficult for the foreigner, but fascinating because of its reflections of the colonial life and traditions of the city, inimitably set down by Ricardo Palma in his *Tradiciones Peruanas*. It should be added, however, that it is only the old streets which are *jirones*. As one walks along the Jirón de la Unión, one passes fine shops under ancient overhanging balconies; the street is crowded with automobiles and trolley cars; the sidewalks overflow with pedestrians. Especially noteworthy to the

stranger is the display of hand-wrought silver, either colonial or in the colonial style. The last two blocks before reaching the Plaza de Armas are called respectively *Espaderos*, because in colonial times the sword makers were established here, and *Mercaderes*, because merchants chose this location for business from the early days of the city.

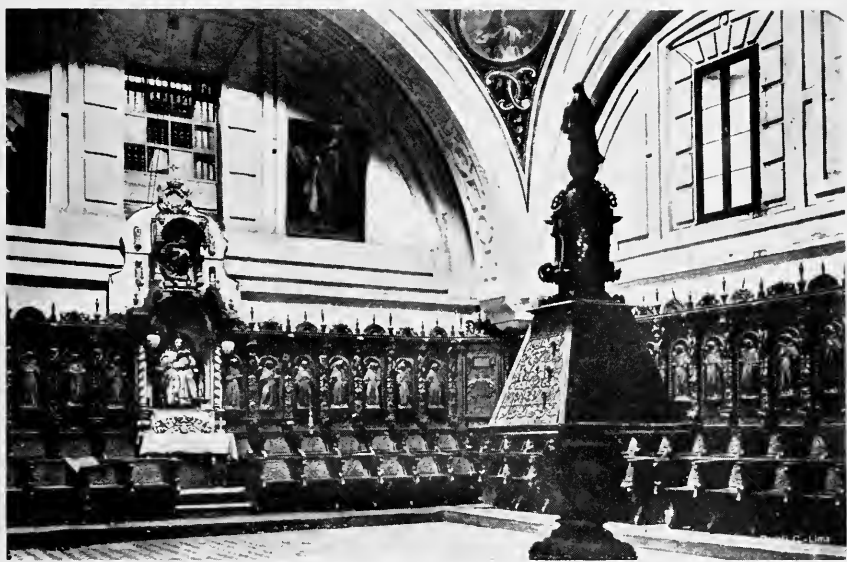
The Plaza de Armas is, as it has been from the beginning, the main square of the city. Time has passed, leaving it redolent of history and romance; it has witnessed many of the reverses of fortune and much of the joy and sorrow in the life of the Limeños. Today taxis stand waiting to bustle off, many persons pass through or linger on the benches, and little boys selling lottery tickets besiege everyone. In the center of the square, surrounded by palms and flowers, is a beautiful bronze fountain of three basins, possibly the oldest in America. It was once surmounted by an angel, but this, being golden, is said to have flown away one night. Around the base of the fountain appears repeated the city's coat of arms, as granted by Charles V and his mother Juana. It bears the latter's double-headed eagle and columns of Hercules, and three stars which supposedly symbolize the Three Magi.

On one side of the square rises the cathedral, now a basilica by papal authorization; the cornerstone of the first church on this site was laid by Pizarro on the day when he founded the city. The present edifice was erected at the end of the eighteenth century on the foundation of others destroyed by earthquakes; its plans were drawn by the presbyter Matías Maestro. The imposing neoclassic facade is wrought of stone from Panama and adorned by two towers. The marvelously carved choir stalls of cedar form the chief artistic glory of the cathedral; its chief historic interest is centered in the tomb of Pizarro in a side chapel ornamented with scenes from his life executed in mosaic.

On a second side of the square is the enormous Government Palace, whose cornerstone was also laid by Pizarro. It was his residence and has been that of forty-three viceroys and of all the presidents of Peru. Here, too, are located various Government offices. Soldiers guard the great door, and there is much coming and going. The palace still preserves its ancient form, being built around large patios. The reconstruction which it has undergone has been carefully executed in the colonial style; its carved ceilings, silver chandeliers, and tiles preserve the original atmosphere. In the flower-filled inner patio is a spreading fig tree said to have been planted by Pizarro himself. Next to the palace on the same side of the square is the archbishop's residence, a modern structure after the colonial pattern.

The other two sides of the plaza are lined with shops fronted by stone arcades, built in 1693. One row is called *Botoneros*, because the

first dealers in notions established themselves here; the other is the *Portal de los Escribanos*, since the scriveners of the colony chose this place for their offices. Other streets near the plaza named for the wares once sold in them are *Polvos Azules*, or indigo; *Pescadería*, or fish market, to which were banished from the plaza in colonial times the dealers in the delicious fish from the Pacific; and *Mantas*, where the ladies of Lima bought the rich black silk Indian shawls with which they wrapped themselves in artfully disposed folds. Later the charming lace mantilla was adopted for church, but this has practically disappeared today, in favor of the hat. But the Limeña of the present, like her ancestress who went out in the middle of the day to buy



CHOIR STALLS OF THE CATHEDRAL, LIMA.

The site for the cathedral was chosen by Pizarro. The beautifully carved choir stalls of red cedar constitute a noteworthy embellishment.

flowers or the mixture of fragrant petals called *mistura*, still goes to "the center" to shop, and thus, although she is dressed in the latest Parisian mode, relives in a measure the customs of the colony.

Beyond the Plaza de Armas one comes to a small shady square, in the center of which is a beautiful monument to Simón Bolívar, the Venezuelan Liberator who helped the Peruvians bring to a climax their struggle for independence from Spain. At the entrance to the square stands the old edifice which was once the Palace of the Inquisition. The hall where the inquisitor held his tribunal is now the chamber of the Peruvian Senate; it is one of the most beautiful rooms in Lima because of its dark wainscoting and exquisitely carved beamed ceiling of mahogany. Dominating the farther end of the



THE BOLÍVAR MONUMENT IN LIMA.

A monument to Simón Bolívar, who aided Peru to consummate her independence, occupies a commanding site in a small square in front of the capitol.

plaza is the capitol, a modern building and a handsome one both within and without.

Not far from the Government Palace runs the Rímac River, shallow except when swollen by mountain storms. The stone bridge which crosses it leads to the section of the city called "Below the Bridge", where colonial Lima carried on much of its social life. The viceroys and the noble families promenaded in their gilded coaches along the Avenue of the Barefoot Friars, on the slope of San Cristóbal Hill. This eminence received its name because, so tradition says, the Inca Manco Capac, who was besieging the city in 1535, suddenly raised the siege, to the Spaniards' amazement, on the day of San Cristóbal (Saint Christopher). As much a wonder to them would be the radio station which now tops the hill.

Among the famous buildings in this part of the city is the house of the Condes de la Presa, popularly called the house of "La Perricholi," whose real name was Micaela Villegas. This famous actress, a favorite of the viceroy of her time, is the heroine of several of the lively *Tradiciones* of Ricardo Palma, of *La Carrosse du Saint Sacrement*, by Prosper Mérimée, and of other books.¹ The mansion, now an army barracks, is well preserved; its graceful verandas, overlooking the carefully tended garden, its delicately carved and gilded altar,

¹ La Perricholi is of course best known to American readers through Thornton Wilder's imaginative tale *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*.—Editor.

and the drawing room whose ceiling is adorned with medallions framed in moldings of baroque curves, all bring to mind the luxurious and courtly atmosphere of eighteenth century Lima. Another house which with more reason might be called La Perricholi's retains now but the faintest vestiges of its former charm: a few windows still display intact their carved wooden gratings, and here and there a painted molding may be seen above the dark lumber room of a carpenter shop,

THE ENTRANCE TO
THE CHURCH OF SAN
AGUSTÍN.

Construction began in 1554 on this church, whose Churrigueresque façade is an admirable example of that florid architectural style.



whose floor was once hidden by the voluminous silken skirts of fashionable ladies.

Many of the churches of Lima were also constructed in the colonial period. They are notable especially for their lofty retables of dark carved cedar, rising usually from floor to ceiling and each containing several figures or paintings of saints in their niches, as in San Mareelo. La Merced, San Agustín, and others are attached to convents and

show in sacristy and charming patio many beautiful old tiles and the carved beamed ceilings of cedar so characteristic of viceregal Lima. Around the cloisters usually hang religious paintings of much interest and artistic merit.

Mementos of the historic past are found enshrined in the National Museum and in the Bolivarian Museum, already mentioned. The prehistoric past has its temple in the superb Archeological Museum, full of priceless objects from the early cultures of Peru: the Nazca, the Parakas, the Inca, and others. Beautiful ceramics of the most varied design, priceless textiles of exquisite pattern and finest weaving, marvelous feather robes, seated mummies, with the numerous cover-



THE DOS DE MAYO PLAZA.

The monument commemorates a Peruvian victory in a naval battle with Spanish forces on May 2, 1866. Palatial residences of harmonious design face the plaza.

ings in which they were shrouded, all bear witness to the high degree of civilization attained by the Peruvians long before the discovery of America. This museum is one of the most interesting places in Lima to anyone who cares to read something of man's past in the objects which he contrived for use and beauty.

After visiting the museum one may drive out twenty-five miles from the city to see, on a lonely, arid hill from which the sea is glimpsed, the ruins of the temple of Pachacamac, whose glory is so eloquently described by Prescott. Incan and pre-Incan rites were celebrated here, and hither came with Indian messengers the emissaries of Pizarro seeking to collect part of the gold for the unavailing ransom of Atahualpa. Here still lie in quantity in the barren dust, preserved by the

dryness of the region, bones of men who lived centuries ago and who made the pottery vessels now broken into a million shards.

Among the old customs of Lima is the popular festival observed on June 24 on the Pampa de Amancaes, a level stretch of ground on the outskirts of the city named for the yellow flowers which blossom there at that season. In viceregal times this was one of the gayest celebrations of the year. All prepared for it long in advance and on St. John's Day sallied forth in their best array, on foot, in carriages with liveried outriders, or on horseback. Riders vied with each other in the fineness of their ponchos, the brightness of their neckerchiefs, and the value of their mettlesome steeds and handsome saddles. To



ALAMEDA DE LOS DESCALZOS (AVENUE OF THE BAREFOOT FRIARS).

Originally planned in 1611, this delightful promenade has retained a distinctly colonial atmosphere, in spite of ornamental changes made as late as the nineteenth century.

the sound of the guitar, harp, and a box beaten with the hands, couples tripped through the *marinera*, sometimes called the *zamacueca*. The man and girl danced opposite each other, each with a handkerchief in an upraised hand, waved gracefully in time with the music. Meantime the musicians sang verses, some of which were made up on the spur of the moment. Nowadays, people go out more prosaically in automobiles, and from grandstands watch the Indians who, dressed in their picturesque bright-colored costumes of hand-woven wool, come from all over the country to dance their folk-dances and play their plaintive music on the native flute, harp, or Pan's pipes. Several years ago the old "Amancaes" was converted by Government decree into the "Day of the Indian." This affords an interesting means of

seeing native customs which could only be observed otherwise by dint of many days' travel. A traditional part of the festival is the sale of typical Peruvian dishes by *vivanderas*, who put up their stands along the road to the pampa and around it.

The great religious festival of Lima falls in the latter part of October. Notwithstanding its modernity, the city then takes on a seventeenth-century aspect in the colorful religious procession of Our Lord of Miracles. This has taken place every year since 1655 on the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twenty-eighth of the month. Tradition relates that in 1651 a negro painted in fresco on an adobe wall a picture of Christ. When, four years later, an earthquake lay waste the city, this wall remained intact in the midst of wreckage. As a consequence there arose a widespread worship of the fresco, now preserved on the high altar of the Church of the Nazarenes. It is an oil copy which is carried on a rich and heavy platform of silver for three days through the city. Near it walk the traditional *zahumadoras*, carrying lighted silver censers, but the *mistureras* of colonial times, who bore on their heads great trays of blossoms, have been replaced by members of the brotherhood devoted to the worship of Our Lord of Miracles, who collect the flowers everywhere offered to the image as it passes. A band accompanies the procession, which is formed of a heterogeneous assemblage of thousands of persons of all social ranks who wish thus to show their devotion. Many of them wear the showy purple costume characteristic of the brotherhood.

Past and present go hand in hand in Lima. Under the old balconies run asphalted streets with electric lamps, and from the center of the city broad avenues extend to the many suburbs, where the patio style of architecture has been abandoned in favor of detached houses, each of which, large or small, is set in its own garden. Roses, bougainvillea, geraniums, jasmine, and many other flowers clamber the walls and the fences with the exuberance seen in Florida and southern California. The cold Humboldt current, sweeping up from the Antarctic, modifies the heat of the tropics. December, January, and February are the warmest months and the most sunshiny. During the rest of the year there is sometimes a light mist, which a true Limeño never dignifies by the name of rain. The foreigner, however, may occasionally take to rubbers and umbrella, especially in the morning. But the weather does not matter much in Lima, whether one is strolling through the streets, visiting the museums, going to the movies in one of the attractive theaters, having tea or cocktails at the Bolívar, or playing golf at the Country Club. There is something for all tastes and hours; be it ancient or modern, it has the rich savor which Lima imparts to everything that is hers.

SOME INTER-AMERICAN ACHIEVEMENTS OF 1933

By WILLIAM A. REID

Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union

THE poet's expression of "still achieving, still pursuing" seems peculiarly applicable to the material progress that American nations have made during the past year. Depression has somewhat lessened. The output of gold, silver, tin, and copper has increased and shipments are resuming their movements from fields of production to manufacturing nations; several new highway arteries are opening motor-car service along former primitive trails; air express patronage has expanded and now competes with the already heavy volume of passenger and mail traffic moving by air between the Americas; irrigation has given work to thousands, brought moisture to desert areas, and prepared them for future home seekers. The new spirit of confidence, new trends, Presidential visits, are but a few of the factors in the march of progress during 1933.

We speak of these achievements in general terms; let us be specific and enumerate some of these upbuilding and outstanding events.

Two features of the year's achievements tend to bring the people of Mexico and those of the United States into closer contact. First, the practical completion of the Laredo-Mexico City highway and the placing of safety rails along certain dangerous curves in the road. Thus the new year finds the route from the Río Grande to the Mexican capital open to adventurous tourists; and two enterprising writers, after motoring over and inspecting several thousand miles of this and other new highways of the country, have prepared the first *Motorists' Guide to Mexico*,¹ a valuable handbook for all who wish to visit the wonderland of the Aztecs.

The second inducement to see more of Mexico was the exhibition at the Chicago Century of Progress, at Washington, and at several other cities in the United States, of the marvelous relics excavated from the ruins of Monte Albán, near Oaxaca. Probably millions of Americans viewed the displays and admired these famous works of art produced by the original or early inhabitants of that part of the American continent. These objects and new roads widely advertise Mexico, and it is believed that the marvels of that country will be more than ever visited by residents of the United States.

¹ Michael and Virginia Scully: "Motorists' Guide to Mexico." The South-West Press, Dallas, Tex., 1933.

The rising price of silver, a leading export product of Mexico, is responsible for putting hundreds of miners to work, particularly in the States of Zacatecas and Guanajuato. Shipments of silver during the months of November and December were particularly heavy; one of these consisted of some 6,500,000 ounces exported from the port of Vera Cruz consigned to New York. Not only was the past year productive of increased silver output, but of an impetus to other mining activities by reason of increased demand and steadily rising prices of crude materials.

The reconstruction of Tampico, largely destroyed by cyclone, is proceeding somewhat slowly, but the National Government came to



ZIMAPÁN, FROM THE MEXICO CITY-LAREDO HIGHWAY.

The year 1933 brought considerably nearer to completion the highway which will make the capital and other sections of Mexico easily accessible to the automobile tourist of the United States.

the assistance of the city and State and hundreds of laborers have found work. Importation of building materials and hardware are expected to be active during the present year.

Closely akin to Mexico's increasing output of silver is the gold-mining activity of Colombia. Last July was a record-breaking month in the output of that precious metal. In 30 days about 39,000 troy ounces were taken from Colombian mines; two thirds of this amount originated in the Department of Antioquia. If this rate of production were kept up, the mines would yield a total output much superior to that of the entire year 1932, which amounted to 248,000 ounces. Gold mining all over Colombia was especially active as the



Courtesy of the Interoceanic Railway of Mexico, Ltd.

THE PEÑALES MINE, DURANGO, MEXICO.

Mining activities in Mexico have been given an impetus during recent months by higher prices of silver and other metals.

year drew to a close; increased premiums on bars of gold paid by the Bank of the Republic at Bogotá continue to stimulate the industry.

The present-day demand for gold is sending men and machines beyond the pale of civilization. Probably nothing more hazardous or spectacular in mining operations occurred during the year in the Americas than the recent transportation of heavy machinery to a wild and almost uninhabited region of the Andes. In former years long strings of mules and oxen dragged ponderous mine equipment along primitive trails to the scene of operation. But in 1933 an airplane transported 60 tons of hydro-electric gold-mining machinery from the end of the railroad at ancient Cuzco to the field of gold operations at Cotabambas. This site lies hidden in folds of the Andes, nearly a week's journey by trail from Cuzco, over mountains 15,000 feet in height; but by airplane the distance was covered in about 30 minutes. Four round-trip flights were made per day; the plane, which had been especially equipped for heavy duty, transported the entire equipment, manufactured in Pittsburgh, without mishap. Some loads weighed over 3,000 pounds; certain parts of uncrated turbines weighed 1,100 pounds; some crates were 1,300 pounds in weight and of large dimensions.



Photograph by Stephen Q. Hayes.

THE PORCE RIVER AT THE HORMIGUERO GOLD MINE, COLOMBIA.

Since the attention of practically the entire world has been focused on gold, the Colombian gold mines saw a year of unusual activity in 1933.

Once deposited by airplane in the region of operations, all of this equipment had to be lowered by cable into a 2,000-foot canyon of the Santo Tomás River. There in isolation the Compañía Exploradora Cotabambas has assembled, after meeting seemingly insuperable difficulties and heavy expense, modern mining equipment and is now operating an enterprise that promises much for its owners and for Peru.

Echoes of the visit of the President of Panama to the President of the United States indicate that Panamanian merchants are highly appreciative of the new order that prohibits the United States commissaries in the Canal Zone from selling goods or granting certain other privileges to nonresidents of the Zone; that Zone lunch rooms are to be available only to *bona fide* officials and employees of the Canal; and that the tourist and general traveler must not expect to receive the special privileges of purchasing goods from Government agencies.

For some years Panamanian business men have complained at the loss of merchandise sales because of competition from United States commissaries in the Zone. The new orders, resulting from conferences between the Executives of the two countries, which took place in the White House in Washington, have increased the numbers of patrons of Panamanian stores and restaurants.



LA PAZ, BOLIVIA.

The number of radio stations of Bolivia was augmented by the inauguration in July 1933 of the powerful Ilimani station near La Paz, in the shadow of Mount Ilimani.

During the recent years of turmoil and lessened business all over the world, the American nations have been united by radio services to an astonishing extent. Despite present-day conditions and lowered purchasing power even among families that were well-to-do yesterday, the purchase of radio sets has continued. Today, conservative estimates of officials of South and Central American countries and the Caribbean Islands place the number of sets in use at nearly a million. Mexico has more than 100,000; Argentina is credited with 400,000 and Brazil with 200,000; Cuba uses about 30,000; our Virgin Islanders enjoy 50 sets; the isolated Falkland Islands are operating 16 sets; while all the other nations and colonies are receiving the news, music, and education that comes to millions of people through the air.

The Latin Americans are a music-loving people and many a famous artist hails from their part of the world. The radio is but another outlet for their musical talent. And today, radio programs are not only heard from North to South American stations and from South to North, but from station to station all over the southern countries. Truly, the air is filled with music and song and story, and these agencies are making the peoples of the Americas acquainted as no other agency can do. Most of this radio network has been developed, as already stated, during years of depression.

A new and powerful station, called Illimani after the great snow peak which dominates La Paz, Bolivia, was opened last July at El Alto, above that city. This is one of the highest stations in the Americas, for its altitude is 13,500 feet. From its position on the roof of the continent it can be heard on both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and in the northern continent as well.

An innovation to the residents of Buenos Aires was introduced in 1933 when a restaurant company established a quick lunch service. The company acquired property in the heart of the city, remodeled the interior, and installed modern and expensive equipment for preparing and serving food on a large scale in a short time.

The public recognized the usefulness and convenience of the new restaurant and patrons by the thousands entered its doors. Not only do prominent men patronize the "Metropole" but women, too, are provided with exclusive space where they may enjoy their noon-day meal in leisure and comfort. The chief attractions are the fine equipment and furnishings and the well-prepared dishes, which are available at a moderate cost. According to late reports, the restaurant is serving thousands daily at a small profit per customer, but large numbers of customers are the goal of its promoters and management.

In 1933 construction work on one of Argentina's principal railways was resumed. This branch of the Southern Railway is being pushed onward in the direction of famous Lake Nahuel Huapi, a body of water lying in the Andes several hundred miles southwest of Buenos Aires. About 30 miles of this track neared completion in December, and the remaining 10 miles will be ready for trains early in 1934. Thus a new through line of rail transportation is being opened from the capital to the Argentine equivalent of Yellowstone Park. In past years, excursion trains have been operated on about three fourths of the line, but bus service over a dusty road was necessary on the part now under rail construction. The completed road will not only serve freight and passenger traffic but open a new region to pioneers and prospective settlers.

Experimentation in providing modern necessities from native raw materials is a work that continues in action in Brazil. The utilization of some of the surplus stocks of coffee, mixed with coal, as a fuel for coastwise steamers has had a trial; it met with some degree of success.

Now comes a scientist, Dr. Antonio Gravala, director of an experiment station in Minas Geraes, who reports that alcohol for the propulsion of motor vehicles can be produced from the manioc plant, from which tapioca is made. A ton of raw material may be turned into 50 gallons of alcohol, which replaces gasoline as motive power. Manioc alcohol is said to be cheaper than gasoline, and Brazil possesses

an abundance of manioc. So far, petroleum in commercial quantities has not been discovered in Brazil. At any rate, we see in this experiment how the scientific mind in Brazil is turning to practical things and endeavoring to utilize the resources of the country. This experiment and others no doubt will mark a new era in Brazil.

A call for greater quantities of Brazil nuts comes from the leading importing houses of this country. Strange as it may seem, Brazil nuts are scarcer in the markets of the United States than at any time in 10 years. Toward the end of 1933, our imports amounted to only 6,500 tons. At this figure the consumption of nuts from the far



Courtesy of Dwight P. Robinson & Co. of Argentina.

A SUBWAY TRAIN IN BUENOS AIRES.

Buenos Aires, the only city in Latin America possessing a subway, has during the past year continued to extend its underground system to relieve traffic congestion.

reaches of the Amazon has been severely curtailed; Great Britain made large purchases, thus apparently outdistancing American buyers. At any rate, a rise in price of several cents a pound is to be noted at leading export centers on the Amazon, such as Pará, Manaus, and Santorem. Despite the increase in value, this particular product is still lower in price than many other kind of nuts.

Brazil nuts grow wild on trees that attain extreme heights. The fruit ripens within a burr, which encloses from 15 to 20 nuts, each encased in a hard shell. At maturity the burrs drop to the ground and are gathered by natives who remove the outer husks and bear the nuts to the nearest market place.

Naturally, the call for greater quantities of this product sends more men afield into the vast forests of the Amazon region, where the Brazil-nut tree has flourished for centuries and provided man with a delicious addition to his food supply.

Only one big city in all Latin America operates a subway system for easing traffic congestion. That city is Buenos Aires, which is now extending its underground service.

But Rio de Janeiro, the most spectacular of all American cities, is confronted with a growing traffic problem. Conditions must be alleviated, say officials of that growing capital. To this end, municipal engineers have been directed to prepare plans for an elaborate underground transit system and are today busily engaged in that work. Direct reports received by the Pan American Union indicate that plans will be sufficiently advanced by the end of 1933 to ask for bids for the actual construction work.

Of course, Brazilian engineers and laborers will be given preference in connection with this enormous undertaking. But tools and excavation equipment must come from abroad. Giant steam excavators are expected to be in action early in 1934, and for several years thereafter it is likely that products of the United States will figure largely in equipping and completing this new artery of traffic.

Chile is the only country in South America that is producing coal in commercial quantities and selling this fuel to passing ships. During 1933, a new era in coal exploitation appeared to be opening. Chile started exporting coal to Argentina, and so satisfactory has been the experiment that further development in this commerce is expected. In the first place, Chilean coal deposits lie only a hundred miles or so from the Argentine border. But the Andes are a barrier, and water transportation is used in shipping the fuel to the port of Buenos Aires. The Chilean product is delivered on the docks at a much cheaper rate than British coal. And although thousands of miles of Argentine railways are operated by British companies, the latter are willing purchasers of the fuel from Chile. It may not measure up to British coal, but its steaming properties are well known, and its utilization seems to be part of the rising tide of commercial intercourse between the two countries.

Manufacturing in Chile registered several notable advances during the year. For the first time in the nation's history radio outfits were made in Santiago and, judging by the local demand for these sets, the company that started the enterprise has an inviting field ahead. A factory that has long made furniture is cooperating with the radio enterprise by providing cabinets, employing the fine woods which Chile has in the south. More intricate parts of the radio, however, are manufactured from units and accessories imported chiefly from the United States.



A HIGH TENSION POWER LINE IN CHILE.

The development of numerous sources of hydroelectric energy has made electric current available for the growing number of manufacturing industries throughout the country.

In recent years, the extension of electric current to all parts of the country makes it possible to modernize the home by installing radio outfits and using electricity for cooking. Radio programs, it goes without saying, are provided in Santiago and other parts of the country; and thanks to the availability of an inexpensive or home-made instrument many more families are enjoying the service that radio provides. Electric stoves made in Chile are also finding good acceptance, especially in apartments.

In the same country an ambitious plan of the government to settle farmers in southern agricultural provinces made satisfactory progress. The State Institute of Agricultural Colonization, which put the plan into operation, has been instrumental in placing settlers, thus relieving to some extent the unemployment situation in cities and towns. According to the new scheme, Chilean citizens have first privilege of acquiring land at low rates on long-term payment plans; the land is allotted both to those with funds and also to the extremely poor man and his family. Certain farming equipment is provided free of charge. The government's scheme also contemplates providing mar-

ket facilities for the crops raised. A large sum of money is available, and the State Institute is highly encouraged by the progress that has already been achieved.

The year 1933 witnessed the re-opening of the first iron smelter of commercial importance on the west coast of South America. This event occurred last August at Corral in southern Chile, and although operations at first were limited, the eventual success of the enterprise seems assured. Sewer pipe and pig iron are being made in quantity. Smelting is done with charcoal, which is made in the extensive forests on the hills around Corral and sent down to the plant



THE BOLÍVAR HIGHWAY NEAR BOGOTÁ.

The uniting of the Colombian and Venezuelan capitals by the Bolívar Highway ranks high among the practical achievements of 1933 in Latin America. This fine road will eventually connect with an Ecuadorian highway running to the Pacific port of Guayaquil.

by cable car. With pig iron thus available within the country it seems reasonable to believe that the iron and steel manufacturers at Valparaiso will be in a position to turn out products at lower cost than in former years.

A wave of small-home building has appeared in Chile, and the close of 1933 found some of the important government home building schemes well under way. One large modern structure in Santiago to house workers' families is completed and many such families are enjoying more comforts and better sanitary surroundings than ever before. Reports coming from official sources reflect the general wish to better the living conditions of the poorer classes, a fact which no

doubt spurs the government to further action. For a decade or more attention has been given to making the laboring man more comfortable and better satisfied; many houses have been designed and constructed, particularly in the suburbs of the capital city. The new wave of desire for homes on the part of workers of modest means, homes available to them at low rentals or on long-term payment plans, is being met to a remarkable extent.

As these lines are written, I have just talked with a Colombian official who recently motored over the new highway connecting Bogotá and Caracas. The section near Cúcuta of this 900-mile road is an achievement of the autumn of 1933; before that time motorists could not make the journey between the two capital cities.

"I found the new highway", said the Colombian official, "a very good road and one of the most spectacular routes it has ever been my pleasure to travel; for miles and miles the scenery is grand and the countryside highly interesting. Moreover, it opens a shorter route between the Bogotá region and the steamship lines to Europe. In 5 days we travel by motor car from Bogotá via Caracas to the Caribbean port of La Guaira, from which port there are frequent sailings to European ports. Along this motor route in both Colombia and Venezuela the pioneer is destined to settle; and now that an outlet is provided, what he produces may be marketed by modern methods."

In this hurried review of a vast field many other features of progress have been omitted for lack of space. However, those above outlined typify spirit and activity, and show that in various parts of the Americas, even though the depression is not yet surmounted, there is a general quickening of the vital elements that affect nations and their intercourse with other lands.



BETWEEN SOUTH AMERICAN CITIES

By JENNIE ERSKINE MURRAY

FROM Buenos Aires you may cross the continent by any one of four routes. You may fly across; you may take the Transandine Railroad; you may take the southern course, in the South American summer time, and travel by train, automobile, and boat through the Chilean lake country; or you may take the route I followed.

I left Buenos Aires by train on a Wednesday morning. I knew hardly more about the trip that I was about to take than that, according to schedule, I should arrive at Antofagasta late Saturday night. Although I knew but little, I had reason for foreboding. I had received warnings that the trip would be without interest and would be one filled with trials, that I should be no more than able to survive the dust of the plains and the deserts, the heat by day and the cold by night, the altitude sickness called *soroche*, and the lack of water when the train was sidetracked without an engine. All these trials did befall, and yet I would not have missed that trip over the Argentine pampas, up to the Bolivian plateau, across the desert twelve thousand feet high—part of the great divide of the continent, a flat roof with mountain ramparts far away on the horizon—and down to the Pacific. It was dark when we went through the mountain wall, our train climbing another thousand feet from the plateau in order to pass through the gorge of the Andes and then making a rapid descent that brought us to Antofagasta and the coast about midnight. This was the fourth time that night had fallen and shut out the view of this part of the world, so little known to the rest of the world.

All the first day we were traveling over the Argentine pampas. It was the dry season and the grass grew in stubby bunches. Horses and cattle were always in the view. Occasionally we saw a house, one-storied, sometimes with the side veranda so often seen in Buenos Aires, but generally of patio form. Sometimes there were villages, their sidewalks consisting only of the bleak, dusty roads that stretched far across the bleak, dusty plains. Occasionally we saw the overseer of an estate riding on his handsome horse. We saw numerous men of the plains, seemingly homeless, building fires in the open field as the sun was going down, preparing supper, and making ready to spend the night in the warmth of the fires under the open sky. There was a lovely sunset. Far away across the great expanse of dust-covered plain, crimson beams blazed like a great flaming half wheel and then became a deep red glow that lingered long on the horizon.



AVENIDA DE MAYO, BUENOS AIRES.

From the Argentine metropolis several routes are available for the transcontinental journey to the west coast of South America.

In the morning we awoke to find ourselves traveling through fields of sugarcane, and about twenty-four hours after leaving Buenos Aires we arrived at Tucumán. Its palm trees and poinsettias looked inviting, but we had hardly more than time to reach the train that was to take us into Bolivia.

For the next two days we were traveling through the fields of sugarcane, winding up the fertile valleys, on to barren slopes, through bleak, bare gorges and along precipitous ledges, the gradients becoming ever steeper and the curves sharper and more serpentine. Twists and turns brought the locomotive into view, followed by a car piled high with the wood that fed the engine. Day and night it jerked the train up cogwheel sections of track, yanked it fiercely around sharp bends, or halted abruptly when obstruction threatened. If the area were a grassy one, the obstruction might be seen—cows scampering away as we passed by. Piles of snakelike, twisted wood, which had been placed at intervals along the tracks, provided for the replenishment of our supply. All verdure disappeared and only hard yellow earth was to be seen, bearing nothing but grim, grizzled cacti—gaunt, lonely figures rising high on the slopes. It was just as we were reaching the Bolivian border, in the gray light of early morning, that I saw a herd of llamas. I was to have a closer view of them marching in proud



THE ARGENTINE PAMPAS.

The first day's journey by railroad out of Buenos Aires brings into view various activities on the extensive pampas.

procession on a street in Arequipa. Whether on the plain or in the city, they are stately little animals, looking like diminutive camels, holding their heads elegantly and stepping lightly with a grace that their clumsy camel ancestors never possessed. The glory of the day was always the sunset. Earth and sky glowed with color, the gorges became more yellow and darkened into brown, the plains were suffused with crimson, the mountains and sky were softly blended in purple and mauve, red and pink.

The second morning after leaving Buenos Aires we reached the Bolivian border. It was here, at La Quiaca, that we made our first acquaintance with the Indians. It was early and business was just getting started in the market. Already meat was cooking in large cauldrons. It was a large, clean, well-floored but unroofed enclosure and booths were ready for the vegetables that were being carried in by the early comers. Dogs with vicious barks made me feel unwelcome, and the Indians showed no desire to be friendly.

We stopped at several villages in Bolivia. They were far apart. They consist of a group of long, low adobe buildings of the same color as the earth from which they rise. Often the rooms are without windows, but they open on to other rooms that are roofless, and home life is lived in the out-of-doors behind the yellow walls. The inhabitants, Indians and halfbreeds, were at the station to meet us. We found some of them well-dressed, well-mannered people, men elegant

of style, women aloof and reserved. These men wore high hats, dashing sombreros, swaying ponchos. The women wore a costume of wide spreading, swaying skirts, piled one upon another, showing white lace on the lower tiers, bright shawls embroidered and fringed in the Spanish manner, gold chains and earrings, and always a shining white stove-pipe hat, with or without decoration. A quiet lot of people they are, saying nothing and gliding by silently on their bare feet. Even the babies are quiet, perhaps because they are well satisfied with the way they are carried, going everywhere their mothers go, always riding comfortably on mother's back, held firmly by a scarf or shawl. All through these countries where Indians are



THE GOVERNMENT BUILDING, TUCUMAN.

The progressive capital of the Province of Tucuman, a fertile region, where much sugarcane is grown, is reached within 24 hours from Buenos Aires.

found the transportation of babies is the same. One day in Lima I watched an Indian woman sitting in front of me on a bus that bounced unmercifully and turned corners furiously. I saw two pretty little bare feet protruding beneath the scarf on her back and I knew that a baby was sleeping safely under cover. But the Bolivian babies are far away from the dangers of city crowds and traffic; secure in their shawl conveyances, they look out upon the busy market, while their mothers buy, or sell, sugarcane and oranges.

We arrived at Uyuni about midnight on Friday. Here the next morning we looked out upon a world that was a floor of bright yellow with a dome of sapphire blue; the air had a steel-like coldness. We had crossed through gorges at an altitude of about twelve thousand

five hundred feet and now here we rested for about ten hours in the midst of a great salt desert that occupied a plateau more than twelve thousand feet above sea level.

When we left Uyuni, the desert seemingly atoned for its harshness. Beyond the hard, white-streaked yellow earth, too hard to be called sand, could be seen a mirage. Phantom beauty it was, but the deception was so complete as to make us wonder how many of life's apparent realities might be merely phantoms. The mountains, in all reality, were off on the horizon, one of them a smoking volcano, and below the mountains was the apparent water of a lake, the blue waves in motion, casting gay white surf on the sandy shore. On the other side of the train was a lake of darker hue with dark islands rising from quiet water. For hours we rode with these mirage lakes in the distance and then we came to an interesting reality again. Not far from the tracks were borax lakes, looking like bodies of water frozen all winter, when the ice is just breaking into great blocks and showing the water below. Cross sections of railroad extended to crushing establishments. We were now nearing copper mines, and after night had fallen we saw, far and high in the mountains, the myriad brilliant lights of Chuquicamata, a copper mining camp, established by the Anaconda Copper Co., and we knew that many Americans were living there now engaged in the service of the Chile Exploration Co. Unfortunately it was dark when we passed over the steep Andes, through the gorge and down to Antofagasta, which we reached at midnight on Saturday.

Early the next morning we started back over this road until we reached the gorge that separated the coast wall from the mountains beyond, and through this wall of ore traveled on the Chilean Longitudinal Railroad to Calera. The first part of the journey is over the terrible Atacama Desert where rain is practically unknown, and the exposed nitrate is safe from loss by water as are also the higher-grade deposits which it protects just below. Desolate were those parched slopes, dark gray and black, rocks in great jagged fragments, nothing but cruel earth and sky. But the sunset gave the day its reward, coloring on high the grim mountain background. On Monday the land became kindlier and smiling people came to the train offering us fruit and flowers. It was a large bunch of delicate freesias that we carried into our compartment. On Tuesday morning the sun rose on a smiling country; the freshness of spring was in the air and roses and peach trees bloomed in the dooryards. We changed to the electrified train for Santiago about four o'clock in the afternoon and soon were winding our way into the mountains. Again the sunset colored the sky and now we seemed to be drawing very close to the crimson-flushed snow.

Out from Santiago are lovely roads to travel. As you journey on the railroad to Valparaíso, you pass through farm land on high valleys, opening upon views of mountains with blossoming orchards on their slopes and snow on their heights. If you take the automobile highway going in the other direction to San Gabriel, you find yourself among the snow after riding for less than three hours past gardens of calla lilies and acacia trees in yellow bloom, past fields newly plowed, past orchards of peach trees in blossom, past weeping willows and poplars newly green. You will carry in memory vignettes of rural life—of the half-breed woman who made you welcome by giving you lilies



SANTIAGO, CHILE.

The heart of the Chilean capital is a blend of colonial and modern architecture. The presidential palace "La Moneda", at the right, is one of the city's finest colonial structures. The Ministry of Finance will occupy the taller of the two modern buildings in the background.

and violets from her unkempt garden; of the slender dark-eyed girl who talked to you gently, her head covered with a towel draped so gracefully that you conjured up her remote ancestors who must have lived in a Moorish harem; of the two stately horsemen with wide mustachios, broad sombreros, gay swinging ponchos, riding homeward as the shadows were falling in the valley.

The supreme journey from Santiago is the one to Caracoles, part of the way across the continent by another route. The journey led at first through the same kind of idyllic country that I had traveled before, sheep meadows and farms, gardens and blossoming orchards. The change came suddenly. It was some time after leaving Los

Andes, after passing the Soldier's Leap, up past Río Blanco, that the last pink orchard and flower garden were left behind. Then wild flowers and cacti among the bare rocks, one last habitation with some pigs feeding in the sunshine and one last willow tree by the door, the last lone peach tree blooming valiantly,—and man and his joys were no more except for one house almost buried in snow and fringed with icicles, while goats mounted on near-by rocks showed that the fittest still survived. You look straight up the mountain wall that the train is climbing to the snow sheds which it will pass, you look straight down the wall into the bleak gorge where the Aconcagua rushes and foams madly. You are carried high along the terrible precipices, the river ever farther below and the great grizzly sharp-pointed peaks



A CHILEAN PASTORAL.

"Two stately horsemen with broad sombreros and gay swinging ponchos rode homeward as the shadows were falling in the valley."

rising ever higher, so steep and so sharp that snow cannot cling to them but leaves bare walls and abutments to support the masses of white that rest on their tops. An army of giants they are, in fierce array and in wild confusion. The train passes under the snow sheds and then into a tunnel of snow, the view from the car window being shut out by walls of white, broken in one or two places where can be seen low, gray stone refuge houses and the shelters of the frontier police, made interesting by the stupendous icicles that decorate each wall with an arcade of shining columns. For some time, after having stopped at Portillo to see the frozen lake, we rode between walls of snow. Then we got out of the car at Caracoles, where the Transandine Railroad reaches the greatest height that it travels under the



IN THE CHILEAN ANDES.

Awe-inspiring is the railroad journey across the mighty Andes with their rapidly changing panorama of peaks and gorges.

open sky. Here we looked into the black tunnel that opens upon Argentina. The excursionists made good use of the opportunity that for many was the first they had ever had of frolicking in the snow. They climbed upward, sat down on the white mountain top and gravity did the rest. Sliding, rolling and tumbling, they were soon on a level with the car. The *Christ of the Andes* was only about four miles away, but to travel that distance over the snow-covered pass required as many hours round trip on mule back, and my train would leave in less than an hour. I thought of the old man who never did see Carcassonne.

Another beautiful trip to Andine heights starts at Mollendo. The beginning of the journey seems perilous. I stood on the platform of the stair gangway by which I had descended from the deck of the *Santa María*. I watched the electric launch heave furiously in the waves. I saw the boatman waiting for me to jump. I had terrible misgivings. Would he catch me or would it be the arms of Neptune into which I should fall? I don't know how it happened. I think I lost consciousness for the moment, but there I was, held aloft in the strong arms of the Peruvian man of the sea and Neptune himself never knew mortal homage such as mine in my feeling of gratitude for that sturdy boatman. We bounced on the waves up to the seawall.



THE WATER FRONT AT MOLLENDO, PERU.

Disembarking at the rock-bound port of Mollendo provides many thrills for the adventuresome traveler.

Then a great iron arm was swung over my head and a chair was lowered by a cable controlled by an engine on the platform. I was the only woman in the boat filled with men and boys, two of whom were taking care of my baggage. I sat on the chair, up we rose, all of us, men and boys hanging on to the rounds of the chair wherever they could get hand-hold, and before I touched my foot to the land, my baggage had already arrived.

The next day I traveled by train a six hours' journey up the mountains to Arequipa. The car was one like our own and it was crowded with *cholos*, the name given to halfbreeds in Peru and Bolivia. Women with babies in their arms occupied the seats, and men, with children clinging to them, filled the aisle. From the start the route rises. The journey begins with a lovely view of the sea, its guano-streaked coast and bird-sheltering, rocky inlets. Sea views increased in distance and grandeur as the ocean appeared again and again while we made the ascent. As the train rose we passed from one climatic belt to another, the aspects of the land constantly ranging from tropical luxuriance to glaring desert. So sudden are the changes that the bodies of cattle that have wandered from their pasture belt of close growing verdure into a dry belt from which they cannot escape before thirst overtakes them, lie dead, their hides burning crisp, or their bones bleaching white under the glaring sun. Lovely is the vegetation in the belts where moisture is precipitated and even in the desert the leakage from the water towers that supply the train is

sufficient for a settlement consisting of a few cane houses and gardens bright with oleanders and hibiscus and luxuriant with sugar cane, banana plants and trees bearing cotton. The moving sands of La Joya occupied a high barren plateau. The hard yellow earth rises in ridges formed in parallel curves. They are called "moving sands" because it is known that the force of the winds causes the curved ridges to move in an even march and slowly change their location in the course of the years. Soon you get into the mountains, wild and grand, not snow-covered but lovely of color. Fascinated by their beauty, you watch the ever-changing forms and shades of red and purple until there comes a sunset that surpasses all that you have seen in these uplands of marvelous sunset skies. The light is thrown against the



THE CATHEDRAL AT AREQUIPA, PERU.

From the slope of snow-crowned Mount Misti, one of the three peaks which dominate the city, began the author's flight to the Peruvian capital.

bright yellow sides of a vast canyon, making them walls of gold. These golden walls protect a valley of dark green, so rich in verdure that your imagination reaches far down to where you know there must be homes and happy people. Then a turn of the train around a mountain curve and Mount Misti rises stately before you, crowned with snow, with her snow-crowned attendants on either side, all flaming in the last red light. Gradually color and light disappear. A few short moments of twilight gray and then mountains and valleys are gone in the blackness. You turn from the window and the *cholos* and awakening babies seem unreal, but in another moment you find yourself in the scramble to empty the car of babies and baggage. It is some time, however, before you can make the adjustment from the experience of transcendental loveliness to your human surroundings.

The next great trip was the flight from Arequipa. We took off from the gray, barren slope of Misti. We shot over the town, looked down into the Indian homes open to the sky, into the lovely gardens enclosed by white walls, got one last view of the cathedral towers and the arcades and palm trees of the plaza, and then turned around to look the snow of Misti and Chachani square in the face. It was ten o'clock when we took off. It was a quarter before two when we made our first landing at Ica, then after another landing at Chosica, we arrived at Lima at half past three. At times we flew as high as eleven thousand five hundred feet above sea level, three thousand feet above the earth beneath us. Below was a great desert plateau,



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AT A PERUVIAN RAILROAD STATION.

The Indian owners proudly display their pair of prize-winning llamas.

grand in color, outline, and vast distances. It was like a great sunset with colors roughly laid on, reds and browns, yellows and blues, and the light of the sky "was like unto a stone most precious." On the east were the high cordilleras. For more than an hour, one after the other, white domes shone against the sapphire blue. On the west a series of red cliffs fell to unseen depths. I thought of the Book in which it is written, "And I saw heaven opened." I thought of the walks and the streets of the city and the gates thereof, and the angel with the great rod measuring the length and the breadth and the height thereof and the gleaming and the glittering of the precious stones—the marbles and the pearls. It was only in its dazzling light

and colors, however, that it recalled the vision of the Celestial City, for it was an arid, barren waste where neither man nor beast could long survive. Yet every once in a while sharp gashes occurred in the plateau through which rivers zigzagged, forming soft green valleys. I could distinguish houses where people lived in these ribbon-like valleys of orange groves and cotton plantations. To the west white cloud masses began to appear. Blue shone beyond the white, but it was not yet the blue of the ocean; it was still the blue of the sky seen in patterns between the clouds. Then came the sea, a floor of sapphire, separated from the red and yellow earth by surf that I knew was beating wildly; from our great height, however, it looked like a firm wall of white marble, exquisitely carved. The white clouds turned to gray, wispy, gauze-like veils that we passed through. Then the colors were all shut out and we were enclosed in gray and the air felt kind and soothing. We flew lower, got down below the clouds. We could see the roads and automobiles gliding along, then houses and men, farms and villages. As we flew over the ocean the beach rocks of the coast seemed moving as rapidly as the black sea lions playing around them. When we came to Pachacamac, the ruins of the old Inca, or pre-Inca, Temple of the Sun, could be clearly seen in circular outline. I thought of Pizarro and the cruel tribute he exacted from men who, ages before, had made for themselves pleasant paths to those heights from which we had come. Then the marvelous journey was over. We were coming down, down to the world of today, the world of busy men and busy cities, down close to the roofs and the streets of Callao and Lima, down where we stepped out toward the lawn of the Lima Country Club.



THE COUNTRY CLUB, LIMA.

EKEKO, THE BOLIVIAN BILLIKEN

SOME years ago a grotesque, merry little man called Billiken had a considerable vogue in the United States as an emblem of good luck. Was it ten years ago? Or fifteen? It is hard to remember, and scarcely anyone now recalls whether it was for six months or longer that his cheerful face, multiplied indefinitely, was seen in every shop.

The Bolivians, however, do not have such short memories. They have a mascot who was popular with the Indians before the white man came four hundred years ago, and who has since been adopted also by persons of European descent. His name is Ekeko, and figures representing him are one of the chief features of the fair called "Alacitas."

If you are in La Paz for January 24, you will be irresistibly attracted to the booths of this fair, held in the beautiful main square of the city. There you will find every conceivable object made in miniature. Among some of the most interesting are little sets of furniture, complete in every detail, made of filigree silver, including tiny chairs, tables, and even victrolas—perhaps there will be radios this year! There are also most attractive things made of leather, such as infinitesimal riding boots and saddles. In fact, ponchos, caps, shawls, pots and pans—every possible article of clothing and household goods—as well as ornaments, are found in miniature; there are also small packages of coca, without which no Indian figure would be complete, and bags of other foodstuffs. These are hung on the Ekeko to furnish him with all the worldly goods he needs, or they may be bought simply as toys and souvenirs.

Ekako,¹ popularized under the name of Ekeko, was the god of prosperity of the ancient Aymarás. He was constantly worshipped, and invoked especially when some misfortune threatened the happiness of the home. His image, made of gold, silver, tin, or even clay, was found in every house, standing in a place of honor or suspended by the neck. He was given the form of a pot-bellied little man, wearing a tight-fitting cap, sometimes a fan-shaped feather ornament; his outstretched arms were bent at the elbows; his naked body was well formed. His features showed serene kindness and complete happiness. This little idol, charged with bringing good luck and happiness to the household and with driving away misfortune, was the family pet, the inseparable companion of the home. There was no Indian hut where he was not to be seen, always smiling, always with open arms, laden with tiny grains or odds and ends of colored cloth and

¹ These paragraphs are translated from "Mitos, Supersticiones y Supervivencias Populares de Bolivia", by M. Rigoberto Paredes, La Paz, 1920.

wool. The figure was made in various sizes, but the largest was not more than eleven inches high. Very small ones were strung on necklaces and worn by young girls as amulets against misfortune.

The Indians had a blind confidence in Ekako because of the miracles and rewards which they claimed were due to his influence, and all the preaching and persuasion of the missionaries who came after the Spanish conquest could not banish this belief.

The festival devoted to Ekako was celebrated for several days at the summer solstice. Farmers offered him the strange fruits of their

"EKEKO".

The little god of prosperity of the ancient Aymará Indians is the center of the "Alacitas", an annual fair held in La Paz January 24-26. On the small figures are hung miniatures of all the worldly goods needed by the Indian.



harvests, craftsmen pottery utensils, beautiful textiles, and small figures of clay, tin or lead. Anyone who had nothing of his own to offer bought such objects with stones, remarkable for some peculiarity of color or shape, which he had picked up in the fields. No one could refuse to accept these pebbles in exchange for his articles except at the risk of angering the little god; thus this method of purchase and sale became general.

During colonial times Ekako continued to hold sway in popular belief and to be venerated in spite of the efforts of the missionaries to



THE MURILLO PLAZA, LA PAZ.

The festival is centered about the main plaza in the shadow of the capitol.

ridicule him and eradicate his worship. Ekako emerged victorious from every trial; he was still popular, and his festival was still celebrated.

Don Sebastián Segurola, the Governor of La Paz, who had saved the city from the terrible uprising of the Indians in 1781, attributed his victory to the Virgin of La Paz. He therefore established the festival of January 24 in her honor, ordering that the fairs of miniature objects and knick-knacks held at various times through the year should be held only at that time.

The fiesta was first held in 1783, and so that it might be as interesting as possible, orders were sent to the Indians round about that they should bring in their tiny objects, which they usually disposed of in exchange for curious stones. The Indians, more clever than the Governor, took advantage of this permission to turn the feast of the Virgin into homage for their Ekako, whose image they distributed for the customary pebbles.

All social classes took up the festival enthusiastically. When family parties gathered at night in the main square to watch the illuminations and listen to the music of the dancers, companies of young people of good station entered in disguise from the four corners, beating boxes, playing musical instruments, and carrying various trifles which they offered for sale, saying in the Aymará Indian language, "*Alacita! Alacita!*", "*Buy from me! Buy from me!*" Hence the present name of the fair.

The Indian and half-breed women seated along the sidewalks around the plaza and up and down the neighboring hilly streets started the custom of lighting their lamps and candles as a tribute

to the Virgin, when perhaps in their hearts they were consecrating the flames to their favorite Ekako. Images of the god, modeled in plaster and painted in bright colors by Indian sculptors, were offered in profusion for sale or barter. Some of the idols were made in the form of a seated figure, wearing a conical cap and a tunic reaching to the knees, while others were standing, like the ancient ones from Tiahuanacu. Both types persist to the present, and both have the smiling face of a man content with life, fat and well fed.

As time went on, the custom of acquiring articles with pebbles, valued only at the time of this fiesta, began to disappear. First shining brass buttons took their place, but some years ago money became the medium of exchange. Gone, too, is the old custom of



THE "ALACITAS" IN LA PAZ.

Decreed in 1783 by the Governor of La Paz as a religious festival, the "Alacitas" has become a fair for the sale of the Ekako and the diminutive objects associated with his image.

allowing boys to take possession of whatever wares their masters still had on hand when the bells rang for vespers and night began to fall.

What was at first a purely pagan religious observance has therefore gradually been converted into a fair of miniature articles, and what is even more strange, into an opportunity to obtain the legendary Ekako. The little idol, in the distant past venerated only by the Indians, is now accepted in jest by all social classes. In many houses there is to be seen an Ekako, to give him his present name, covered with knick-knacks, little instruments, and diminutive objects of all kinds, smilingly presiding as the family mascot. The mestizos have given Ekako a wife but, like every artificial creation, she does not enjoy his importance or prestige. The multitude has no faith in her, and when there is no faith, a religious creation has no reason to exist.



GUANABARA PALACE, RIO DE JANEIRO.

Here Dr. Getúlio Vargas, Chief of the Provisional Government of Brazil, was host to the Argentine President, General Agustín Justo, on the occasion of the latter's visit to Rio de Janeiro last October for a series of conferences.

ARGENTINE-BRAZILIAN RAPPROCHEMENT

A RECENT EVENT of first magnitude in the international affairs of America was the visit of President Agustín Justo of Argentina to Brazil, the climax of which was the signing of eleven treaties and conventions by representatives of the two powers.

General Justo, accompanied by his wife, Sra. Ana Bernal de Justo, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and civil, military, and naval aides, arrived in Rio de Janeiro on October 7, 1933. The trip was made aboard the Argentine cruiser *Moreno*, escorted by three destroyers, the *Mendoza*, *La Rioja*, and the *Tucumán*; the Brazilian cruiser *Rio Grande do Sul* and the destroyers *Alagoas*, *Piauí*, and *Matto Grosso* acted as convoy to the Argentine squadron. A Brazilian aviation unit flew out to sea to meet the distinguished visitor and extend to him the greetings of the nation. At the pier was Dr. Getúlio Vargas, Chief of the Provisional Government of Brazil, accompanied by his cabinet. Detachments of the Army, the Navy, and the Military and Naval Schools lined the streets along which the procession passed from the Praça Maua to the Guanabara Palace, where General Justo and his suite were lodged. The official reception left nothing to be desired, but the popular acclaim with which the visitor was greeted passed all expectations; the people of Rio de Janeiro crowded the streets, the avenues, and the squares through which the two presidents were to pass, and hailed them with enthusiasm. Blazoned everywhere was the famous phrase of a late President of Argentina, "Everything unites us, nothing separates us."

This was the first visit of an Argentine Chief Executive to Brazil since President Roca's historic trip in 1908. The obvious desire of the two Governments to put friendly relations on an unassailable basis was hailed by the people and reflected in the press comments of both countries. "It has always been said that the best way to assure peace is to intensify the relations between peoples and their governments. It is self-evident that the better acquainted they are, the stronger will be the bonds of union between distant countries", remarked an editorial in the *Jornal do Brasil* on October 7. This same paper commented the next day on the popular acclaim accorded President Justo on his arrival, saying: "Any one in the city yesterday could not help seeing that the enthusiastic joyfulness was not inspired by frigid protocols. It came from the heart of the people, spontaneously, easily, contagiously. Everyone seemed to understand the

significance of a visit that does us so much honor, and tried to return the courtesy with the sincerity of happiness."

In dealing with the more serious aspects of the visit, the *Jornal* said on October 11, "As regards closer union between Argentina and Brazil, the treaties signed yesterday in the Itamaratí Palace were the natural climax of the enthusiasm which the presence of President Justo and his brilliant entourage has been arousing in the Brazilian capital. It is evident that Argentine-Brazilian friendship is finding new and powerful support in the treaties signed in the Palace on Marechal Floriano Street. They intensify the relations between the two peoples and interdependence is always a force for peace."

Comment in the Argentine press was no less encomiastic. Speaking of the hearty welcome that President Justo received, *La Prensa* of Buenos Aires said on October 8, "The warm expressions of popular enthusiasm with which the Brazilian capital has just received our Chief Executive can have caused no surprise. Cognizant as we were of the sentiments which draw both nations together through a tradition made secure in the last half century by the identity of republican ideals, we find, nevertheless, that yesterday's magnificent reception assumes the importance of a true reaffirmation of friendship and reciprocal sympathy. It proves that our friendship has been kept inviolate in the public spirit, a friendship which inspired the happy phrase of one of our Presidents, displayed as a timely reminder in the streets and avenues through which the visitor was to pass, as a kind of happy augury. Our nations have nothing to gain from groundless rivalry or jealousy, which would only separate them in dangerous isolation. The security of their future rests on their approaching each other in a brotherhood of aspirations for progress which are not incompatible with active and fruitful cooperation."

After the treaties had been signed, *La Prensa* said editorially, "New and irrefutable proofs of brotherhood, more than of friendship, and renewed eagerness for rapprochement, for greater comprehension, are offered by the events taking place in Brazil in connection with the visit of the President of Argentina. And as a written summary, international conventions have been signed which are an effort to consecrate peace and unite the nations more closely by means of 'war against war', the better understanding of the history and the geography of both countries, the promotion of tourist travel, the interchange of professors, books, works of art, and products, and the removal of many of the obstacles, both tangible and intangible, which hinder more intense intermingling and collaboration in the great task of continental progress. These conventions and those demonstrations of mutual sympathy say over and over that without peace at home and abroad the progress of nations is precarious and that the best road for peaceful security is in the knowledge one has of the other and

in the utilization of legal means for settling differences which may arise. That is true not only of Argentina and Brazil but of all nations of the world."

President Justo was honored with official entertainments, which included dinners, receptions, dances, concerts, and a military parade. He visited among other places the Brazilian Institute of History and Geography, the oldest in the New World, the National School of Fine Arts, the Military Academy, the public school that bears the name of his country, and the annual Sample Fair, the most brilliant in many years. President Justo, Señor Saavedra Lamas, and Dr. Ramón Cárcano, Ambassador of Argentina to Brazil, were decorated with the Grand Cross of the Cruzeiro do Sul, a decoration instituted during the Empire and recently revived. They were the first to be so honored by the Republic. The University of Rio de Janeiro conferred upon General Justo the degree of doctor *honoris causa*.

These attentions were returned by functions given on board the Argentine cruiser.

One of the incidents which was particularly appreciated by the Brazilian people was a tribute to the great pioneer in aviation, Santos Dumont. On October 8 in the Praça Santos Dumont a bronze tablet was unveiled by Colonel Zuloaga as a tribute from the Argentine aviation forces.

In accordance with a proclamation issued by Dr. Anisio Spinola Teixeira, director general of the bureau of education of the federal district, October 10 was devoted to Argentina in all the schools of Rio de Janeiro. Lectures, studies, and pictures dealing with Argentina all helped to give a better understanding of the sister nation and of the special ties existing between the two countries to the Brazilian students of today, the generation upon whom will fall the responsibility of fulfilling the vows of friendship pledged anew during President Justo's visit.

At the close of his visit President Justo left for São Paulo and reembarked at Santos. Just before leaving Brazilian shores for his return voyage, during which he spent a day in Montevideo, he broadcast a message to the Brazilian Nation, in which he said:

"It has never been so necessary to speak of broad and intelligent solidarity as in these dark and uncertain hours through which humanity is passing. The period has passed for advocating narrow and suspicious patriotism, which isolated rather than associated nations, and which kept sister countries indifferent to each other, instead of uniting their efforts and their wills, cementing their ideals and their experiences, and conciliating their legitimate and definite interests. The lack of understanding between men and between nations has been largely responsible for the parlous situation in which humanity is struggling. Solidarity, which is the moral law of society, should be expanded to become also the law of nations and continents.

And this is the more necessary when, as in this case, it is a question of sister nations, of which it is true, to use the happy expression of Sáenz Peña, that 'Everything unites us, nothing separates us', a phrase which sums up our past, indicates our present, and holds the promising keynote of our future."

A summary of the treaties and conventions signed in Rio de Janeiro on October 10 is given below.

THE ANTIWAR PACT

Of the international documents signed on the occasion of President Justo's visit to Brazil the Anti-War Treaty of Conciliation and Nonaggression is perhaps the most important. Drafted by Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina, the treaty was submitted to the consideration of Brazil and opened to the adherence of the other American Republics. Its fundamental principles are the condemnation of wars of aggression and the settlement of disputes only through the pacific means established by international law; the nonrecognition of territorial arrangements not reached by pacific means and of the validity of an occupation or acquisition of territory brought about by armed force; and the submission of disputes to the conciliatory procedure created by the treaty when they cannot be settled through diplomatic channels within a reasonable period. In case of noncompliance with these principles the signatory nations are to make every effort in their power to maintain peace, but in no case are they to resort to intervention either diplomatic or armed. The text of the treaty is substantially the same as that of the proposed draft already published in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union.¹ The treaty was signed on October 10, 1933, not only by Argentina and Brazil, but also by Chile, Mexico, Paraguay, and Uruguay.

TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

The treaty of commerce and navigation provides that between the territories of Argentina and Brazil there shall be entire freedom of commerce and navigation. The nationals of each country shall enjoy in the territory of the other the protection of that Government as to their persons and property, as well the rights and advantages enjoyed by its own nationals in the exercise of business, arts, and trades according to the laws in force.

Unlimited and unconditional most-favored-nation treatment is provided in all matters related to customs duties and customs procedure and formalities. Consequently neither Argentina nor Brazil shall levy or increase any duties, taxes, or imposts or establish prohibitions or restrictions upon the importation or exportation of any

¹ The April 1933 issue of the BULLETIN contains not only the draft of the treaty but also the statement of reasons submitted by Argentina and the Brazilian reply.

product from one country to the other unless the restrictions or prohibitions are also placed on the products of all other countries to which the same conditions apply, provided, however, that the restrictions do not refer: to public safety, to traffic in arms, munitions, or war material; to the protection of the public health, or to veterinary or plant-disease regulations; to the protection of the artistic, historic, or archeological treasures of the nation; to the exportation of gold and silver coin and bullion; and in general to fiscal or police measures which impose upon foreign products the regulations applied to similar national products.

The treaty stipulates three exceptions to the most-favored-nation clause: duties, favors, or privileges granted or to be granted by virtue of a convention with other neighboring countries to facilitate frontier traffic; obligations resulting from a customs union; and multilateral conventions between American countries open to the adherence of all, if one of the two nations does not wish to adhere to them.

Free transit by land or waterways between Argentina and Brazil is established for persons as well as for merchandise. This reciprocal freedom of transit is to be particularly applied to the direct traffic of the merchandise of each of them to their respective territories on the Upper Uruguay and Paraná Rivers and to the Republic of Paraguay. Whether by land or by river no restrictions shall be imposed upon the transit of this merchandise except those designed to prevent smuggling, and these shall not be of such a nature as to cause delays or increase transportation costs.

There shall be complete equality of treatment for the merchant vessels under the flags of Argentina and Brazil in the maritime and fluvial waters under their respective jurisdictions, especially in regard to the access to and utilization of ports, to the use and enjoyment of the aids which they offer to navigation, to the commercial operation of vessels, to their cargoes and passengers and to facilities for loading and unloading. This equality of treatment, however, does not apply to coastwise navigation, which will be regulated in accordance with the respective laws of the two countries. Argentina and Brazil, nevertheless, are to study the possibility of extending to the coastal vessels of each other the advantages and restrictions of their own coastwise navigation up to a determined limit on their respective river and sea coasts.

The two nations have agreed to protect against unfair competition the products of each other in their respective territories. Consequently they have undertaken to prohibit the importation, manufacture, and sale of products which bear marks, names, and inscriptions which directly or indirectly give false indications of their origin, kind, nature, or quality.

The treaty also provides that the two Governments are to conclude as soon as possible special conventions to regulate the rights

of their respective consuls in the exercise of their duties in order to simplify consular requirements for the despatch of papers of interest to their respective nationals; postal, telegraphic, radiotelephonic, and radiotelegraphic communications and the exchange of parcels post with a view to greater rapidity and regularity in the delivery of messages and packages; the registry of trade marks in order to simplify this operation; and animal and plant sanitary regulations so that these regulations shall not hinder legitimate commerce.

The treaty will remain in force until six months after it is denounced by one of the contracting parties.

ADDITIONAL PROTOCOL TO THE TREATY OF COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION

The protocol which complements the treaty of commerce and navigation provides that during the life of that *modus vivendi* Argentina and Brazil agree not to increase import duties or surtaxes on their respective agricultural export products and to consider the possibility of extending to other products which form part of their commercial interchange the reductions and exceptions which the protocol concedes to some.

These reductions and exceptions as established in Article II are as follows:

The Argentine Government undertakes to extend to pineapples, alligator pears, *conde* fruits, mangos, and sapotes the exemptions from custom duties already enjoyed, without restrictions, by bananas, oranges, and tangerines; to maintain the exemption from the additional 10 percent tax created by the Decree of October 6, 1931, at present enjoyed by coffee, manioc flour, and boards and planks of South American pine, and to promote in the first session of the Argentine Congress the repeal of the law of January 3, 1933, which makes the said tax applicable to *maté*.

The Brazilian Government in turn agrees to maintain the exemption from duties now enjoyed by all Argentine fresh fruits as well as the 25 percent reduction granted by Decree No. 21,382 of May 10, 1932, upon the importation of potatoes, extending the same 25 percent reduction to corn, garlic, onions, string beans, peas, and *quebracho* extract.

Subject to the restrictions mentioned in the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation Argentina and Brazil have also agreed not to apply between themselves any new prohibition or restriction upon their import or export trade or any measure of consular, custom, or sanitary regulation which would have the effect of creating barriers to their commercial interchange.

The Argentine Government has also promised to maintain the repeal of the measures which limited and fixed quotas for the importation of *maté* and, once assured of the genuineness and purity of the *maté*, not to establish any other regulations which, creating a distinction between the national and the imported product, would indirectly limit its importation. The Brazilian Government in turn

promises not to renew the prohibition and restrictions relative to the importation of wheat and wheat flour, respectively.

The present arrangement between the Banco de la Nación Argentina and the Banco do Brasil relative to the liquidation of frozen credits is to be maintained until exchange operations shall have become normal in both countries.

For the consideration of those questions on which no decision was reached and in general for the examination of the whole problem of the economic relations between Argentina and Brazil, the two Governments are to appoint a mixed commission as soon as possible. In this connection the protocol provides that the Argentine Government is to bear in mind the desire manifested by the Brazilian Government to obtain greater facilities for the entry into Argentina of rice, tobacco, cacao, marble, granite, and cottonseed oil, and the Brazilian Government is to consider the desire manifested by the Argentine Government to obtain greater facilities for the entry of wine, dairy products, meats, and cereals into Brazil.

The clauses of the protocol relative to the maintenance of the status quo became effective provisionally from the date of its signature, October 10, 1933, until the protocol is ratified, or for a period not to exceed one year.

EXTRADITION TREATY

The extradition treaty provides that the contracting parties obligate themselves to the reciprocal delivery, upon demand, of persons who, having been accused or condemned by the authorities of one of them, are found in the territory of the other. Two conditions are provided for the delivery of such individuals: that the crime be punishable by the laws of both the demandant state and the respondent state with an average penalty of two years when the person demanded has been accused and of one year at least in case he has already been convicted; that the crime must have been committed within the territory of the demandant state unless the laws of the demandant state authorize the punishment of the crime in question when committed outside of its territory.

The treaty recognizes the principle that the nationality of the fugitive shall not constitute a hindrance to extradition by providing that "the nationality of the defendant cannot be invoked as grounds for the denial of extradition"; that is, Argentina can extradite from Brazil a Brazilian who is accused of a crime committed in Argentina, or vice versa.

Extradition will not be granted for political crimes or those connected therewith; for purely military crimes or those against religion; when the person demanded has already been tried or is under trial for the same offense in the respondent state; when the offense or penalty

is barred by limitation according to the laws of the demandant state before the arrest of the offender; or when the person demanded must appear before a *juzgado de excepción*. Extradition will be granted if the crime, although political in motive, is primarily an infraction of the common penal law. However, in such a case the delivery of the offender will depend upon the promise of the demandant state not to increase the penalty because of the political aspect of the case. The determination of the nature of the offense rests exclusively with the authorities of the respondent state.

When the person demanded is under prosecution or has been condemned in the respondent state, the surrender of the individual to the demandant state may be deferred until the proceedings have ended or the penalty has been satisfied. The judicial power of the respondent state may inquire into the propriety of the demand for extradition and the defense of the accused and may grant him the right to *habeas corpus* when his imprisonment or threat of imprisonment would constitute an illegal restriction upon his freedom. Once arrested, however, the person claimed cannot be set free on bail during the process of extradition.

Extradition having been granted, the demandant state must promise to hold the extradited person responsible only for the act on which his surrender was based unless, if set at liberty, he remains within the territory of the demandant state for a period exceeding one month. When the penalty for the offense is death or corporal punishment the respondent state will deliver the accused under the condition that the penalty be commuted to imprisonment.

The treaty also stipulates how the request for extradition is to be presented, the procedure to be followed when various nations demand the extradition of the same individual, and the manner in which the arrest and delivery of the extradited person are to be made.

CONVENTION FOR PREVENTION OF SMUGGLING

In order to prevent and repress smuggling on their common frontier, each of the contracting parties undertakes to adopt measures to prevent, discover, and punish any violations of the customs regulations of the other. Therefore, as soon as their customs officials or river, maritime, air, or land police forces receive notice that some such violation is being planned, they shall make every effort to prevent it, and shall also denounce all violations, whether only planned or actually committed, to the proper authorities of their own state. Another preventive measure in the convention is the control of merchandise stored near the frontiers. Article V provides that the authorities of each country shall take the necessary precautions to prevent suspected merchandise from being accumulated close to the border of the other. In general, in localities where there are no customhouses the storage of foreign nonnationalized merchandise is

not to be permitted nearer than 15 kilometers to the frontier, but this limitation may be modified by common agreement. Other means adopted are the establishment of official return pass bills between the ports of the two countries, the prohibition of organizations formed in one country for the purpose of smuggling merchandise into the territory of the other, the invalidation of insurance contracts covering contraband merchandise, and the surveillance of persons suspected of engaging in smuggling activities.

The convention will remain in effect for five years and will be renewed indefinitely unless denounced by one of the contracting parties at least six months before the termination of any five-year period. Either party may request at the end of each year, however, a partial revision of the convention as experience may dictate.

The Government of Brazil will suggest to the Governments of Paraguay and Uruguay the signing of similar conventions to prevent smuggling on the respective frontier. In case such conventions are not signed, the Government of Brazil has reserved the right to denounce the Argentine-Brazilian convention before the end of the first five-year period.

CONVENTION ON PROMOTION OF TOURIST TRAVEL

The Government of each nation promises to abolish all taxes or duties upon the entry or departure of tourists from the other. Each one will enact measures enabling the nationals of the other, regardless of sex and age, who are not immigrants and who proceed directly from their own country, to enter the other provided only with a passport and sanitary certificates. Tourist passports, whether individual or collective, shall be visaed free of charge by the consular authority at the point of embarkation, such visas taking precedence over other consular duties. The personal visit of the bearer of the passport to the consulate shall not be required. Tourist passports shall be valid for three months, and shall be renewable for a like period by the police authorities of the place which the tourist may be visiting. The convention further facilitates the visaing of tourist passports by providing that requests for visas may be made through navigation companies or tourist agencies and by dispensing with the photographs required for other passports.

Each of the two nations also recognizes the right of free transit throughout its territory for tourist vehicles of the other. To this end the use of international automobile plates and licenses is to be the object of a subsequent agreement between the automobile organizations of the two countries. A conference between the Argentine and Brazilian custom authorities is also to be held as soon as possible in order to reach an agreement as to the handling of tourist baggage.

To increase the tourist movement between the two countries and to facilitate the fulfillment of obligations arising from this convention,

provision is made for cooperation between the tourist organizations of Argentina and Brazil and their respective governments. The Argentine Government will have the cooperation of the Federación Suramericana de Turismo, with headquarters in Buenos Aires, and the Brazilian Government will foster the federation of touring organizations of the country, or accept the cooperation of any one already in existence.

This convention is open to the adherence of any American State.

CONVENTION FOR THE REGULATION OF AIR NAVIGATION

The convention regulating air navigation between Brazil and Argentina adopts general principles and certain rules of international air navigation designed to facilitate and develop air communications between the two countries. Its text is divided into seven chapters dealing respectively with general principles; the classification of airships and conditions for their entry into the airspace of the other country; the requirements as to administrative documents; the regulation of air traffic; the articles whose transportation is forbidden, including explosives, firearms, war munitions and equipment, carrier pigeons, and photographic and cinematographic machines; the application of the penalties established in the laws of the respective countries equally to airships of both countries, and the subjection of the airships of one country to the legislation of the other when flying over its territory; and final provisions, arranging for the exchange of laws and regulations dealing with air navigation, for cooperation between the aviation authorities of both countries in amending the convention, and for the manner of settling divergencies in its interpretation or execution.

CONVENTION ON EXCHANGE OF PUBLICATIONS

A Brazilian section is to be established in the Library of the Argentine Ministry of Foreign Affairs and National Library at Buenos Aires and an Argentine section is to be opened in the corresponding libraries in Rio de Janeiro. For the installation of these sections the two Governments shall supply a comprehensive collection of books and thereafter the national libraries at Buenos Aires and Rio de Janeiro shall exchange books published in their respective countries and copies or photographs of documents of historical importance. After January 1, 1934, each Government shall supply the diplomatic mission of the other in its capital with three copies of all official publications as well as of those published with official cooperation.

CONVENTION ON INTELLECTUAL INTERCHANGE

The scientific, cultural, literary, and artistic associations in Argentina and Brazil shall endeavor to promote intellectual interchange between the nationals of both countries by encouraging their members

and professors of universities and other institutions of higher learning to visit the other country in order to give courses in their respective specialties or lecture on topics pertaining to their respective countries. The interchange of post-graduate students is also to be encouraged. A group of twenty students, representing all sections of Argentina or Brazil, is to visit Rio de Janeiro or Buenos Aires each year. The convention is open to the adherence of any American state.

CONVENTION ON ARTISTIC INTERCHANGE

Expositions of fine and applied arts are to be held annually by the Argentine and Brazilian Governments at Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires, respectively, in order to make known the best works of their national artists and of certain branches of their industries. In the applied arts division there will be sections devoted to books, furniture, ceramics, and architectural projects. During the exhibition weekly concerts of national music are to be held and lectures delivered on the literature and art of the exhibiting country. Each country agrees to pay for the transportation of its own exhibits and the travelling and subsistence expenses of the personnel accompanying them and obligates itself to admit the exhibits of the other free of duty and to pay all other expenses connected with them.

CONVENTION ON REVISION OF HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY TEXTS

The Governments of Argentina and Brazil are to revise the texts used for the teaching of national history in their respective countries, eliminating from them any topics which might arouse enmity toward any American nation in the minds of students. Geography texts are to be revised periodically so that they may agree with the latest statistics and give a clear picture of the resources and productive capacity of the nations of America. The convention is open to the adherence of other American states.

CONVENTION ON SAMPLE EXPOSITIONS AND SALE OF NATIONAL PRODUCTS

The Governments of Argentina and Brazil shall maintain in their respective capitals a showroom for the exhibit of samples and the permanent sale of the national products of the other. The products for these exhibitions shall enter the respective country free of all duties and taxes although, in case of sale, the local import and consumption taxes will be levied in a manner to be determined by the fiscal authorities of both countries. Retail sales of the products exhibited shall be made only as a practical demonstration of their quality and cost. The conditions of sale of such products shall be regulated by agreement between the two Governments. A small sales commission shall be charged to exhibitors to defray the cost of maintaining the expositions.



THE PLAIN OF BOGOTA.

The greater part of the agricultural products of the temperate zone consumed in Colombia are produced in the extensive and fertile region surrounding the capital.

HOW COLOMBIA IS IMPROVING AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTION

By JOSÉ L. COLOM

Chief, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, Pan American Union

A GLANCE at a relief map of Colombia will show why this country is able to raise both bananas and wheat, both coffee and corn. Although it lies in the Tropic Zone, and in its extreme south is crossed by the Equator, the three lofty ranges of the Andes traversing it modify the effects of the latitude by their altitude. "Climate in Colombia", it has been said, "is simply a matter of elevation. From sea level to an altitude of 17,000 feet, one encounters every degree of temperature from that of summer heat to that of perpetual winter." Fertile valleys and high plateaus offer abundant area and variety of climate for many different crops.

The year 1932 witnessed an entirely new orientation in the agriculture of Colombia, which consisted of a real attempt not only to increase production but also to lower the cost and improve the quality of the products. The use of modern machinery in preparing the land for planting was constantly extended, as was also that of modern horse-drawn plows. Of outstanding importance has been the improvement of existing plants and the acclimatization of new ones in the agricultural experiment stations; the result is that a new impulse has been given to this kind of work, which is so important in the competition for markets because of the resultant low price and high quality of farm products and their derivatives.

By virtue of the Government's policy of protecting and stimulating agriculture; cheaper and wider forms of transportation; agricultural credit; experimental, educational, and extension activities; and the increase and improvement of the crops which constitute the bulk of Colombia's agricultural consumption, these crops, including rice, wheat, sugar, corn, and legumes, received a new impulse which caused them to go much further toward satisfying entirely the country's needs.

The only products of Colombian agriculture which are exported in large quantities are coffee and bananas; a few others, like tobacco and certain forest products, although abundantly present in the country, have not yet entered into export in any but the most modest figures.

With a view to acclimatizing certain crops which furnish raw materials for industry, and which in the future may be of tremendous

commercial value, seeds of various plants have been introduced; among these are the tung-oil tree, the babassú palm, the oil palm, hemp, many varieties of soybeans, various forage crops, etc.

Coffee.—Coffee exports for 1932 amounted to 191,134,778 kilograms,¹ valued at 42,910,413 pesos.² Among the important steps taken to aid the coffee-growing region should be mentioned the coffee census, which was carried out with minute thoroughness. According to this, there were 139,348 coffee plantations comprising 556,633 *fane-gadas*, 461,236,225 producing trees, and 69,781,989 young trees which had not yet begun to produce. Coffee experts have intensified their efforts to improve the quality of the product by instituting the very best systems of raising seedlings, pruning, transplanting, harvesting, curing, etc.

Bananas.—Banana production in the country was abundant during 1932, and completely met the needs of local consumption at low prices. The banana plantations, inasmuch as they are relatively new, do not show any alarming disease up to date.

The exportation of bananas from Colombia in 1932 exceeded that of 1931 both in total quantity and value, although the price received was a little lower, as may be seen from the following figures: In 1931, 5,424,100 bunches were exported, valued at 4,857,598.50 pesos; while in 1932, 7,020,529 bunches were exported, worth 6,007,273.50 pesos.

The general progress made in Colombia toward increasing national production and lowering imports of many products can be proved beyond doubt by the following comments and import statistics for the different crops:

Coconuts.—The importation of this commodity in the form of copra increased in the first three months of the year 1932, due to the development of the vegetable-lard industry of the country. Coconut production in Colombia, including that of San Andrés and Providencia, has not yet advanced sufficiently to meet the national demand; for this reason there exists in the cultivation of this crop, particularly along the Atlantic coast, a real opportunity for farmers. The copra is imported from Trinidad, where its value fluctuates between 1.10 pesos and 2.40 pesos per 100 pounds of 462 grams. The imports of copra for the first three months of 1933 amounted to 947,606 kilograms, worth 50,908.71 pesos.

Rice.—The development of rice cultivation in the Republic begun in 1931 has continued quite satisfactorily, as is shown in the gradual reduction of rice imports. These have fallen from 49,329,778 kilograms in 1930, valued at 3,705,371 pesos, to 14,681,548 kilograms in

¹ Kilogram equals 2.2 pounds.—Editor.

² The average value of the peso in 1932 was \$0.9528.

1932, worth 578,213 pesos. The production of rice in Colombia in 1930 was approximately 21,000,000 kilograms, while in 1932 this had risen to around 47,000,000 kilograms. From estimates made with respect to the importation of rice during the first three months of 1933, it is believed that imports for that year will not be half as great as those in 1932. Three complete mills for processing rice were installed in different producing centers of the country, and at present plans exist for the establishing of five more. With these it is hoped that the quality of the national product will be improved so that it can compete favorably with that of imported rice. New varieties have been introduced, of particular note being the Fortuna



A COLOMBIAN COFFEE PLANTATION.

Coffee comprises the principal export of the country. The Colombian product, which is mild in flavor, is always in demand in world markets.

variety brought in by the Agricultural Experiment Station at Palmira. It may be said that a marked increase has been noted in the cultivation of rice throughout the principal producing regions. During 1933 plantings have been large, and because of the favorable weather good yields were hoped for.

Wheat.—In spite of the extensive planting of this crop in 1932, production was no higher than for the preceding year. This can be explained by the unfavorable season in the early part of the year, which hindered seed germination, mainly in the Department of Boyacá, and by the rust and frosts in the same region and in

Cundinamarca. In the other wheat-growing regions, especially in Nariño, the Santander, Antioquia, Tolima, and Cauca, production continued to increase.

It is interesting to note that wheat and flour imports have been gradually and steadily falling off since 1930, in which year the figures were 32,674,931 kilograms valued at 1,461,931 pesos (production 47,031,800 kilograms). In 1932, 9,908,369 kilograms of wheat were imported, valued at 239,947 pesos (production about 68,000,000 kilograms).

The area sown to wheat in 1933 was greater than that in previous years. In Cundinamarca especially the cultivation of wheat is being substituted for that of potatoes in those regions where the latter crop has for some years been attacked by the white tuber borer, *Tryporemnon spp.* The outstanding need of the wheat industry at present is to lower cost of production and improve the quality of grain for milling.

Barley.—The production of barley destined for food- and feed-stuffs was normal. The production of malt barley, which is the only class imported today in either the finished product or in grain, did not increase appreciably. The importation of this kind of barley fell off to one half the amount in 1931; but this decline was due principally to large stocks from the foregoing year and to a diminution in beer consumption throughout the country.

Sugar and sugarcane products.—The cultivation of sugarcane and the production of sugar and sugarcane products in general increased notably during the year 1932, accompanied by a marked reduction in prices and in costs of production.

Sugar and sugarcane products are made by the sugar mills and sugar centrals in the form of refined sugar, unrefined brown sugar, cakes of brown sugar (*panela*) and molasses. Nearly every phase of sugar refining is carried on in three regions of the country; the Cauca Valley, the Atlantic coast and Cundinamarca. These regions present favorable conditions for both cultivation and manufacture, and in each of them there is an ever-increasing tendency toward the development of large enterprises under circumstances that promise the production of sugar at a low price. In the Cauca Valley production has been tripled since 1930.

In the case of brown sugar there was a distinct falling off in production, due chiefly to competition at very low prices. The production of brown sugar and molasses was high, and prices remained throughout the year at a level which did not pay the costs of production. Granulated sugar competes strongly with *panela*, and is seen to be slowly replacing the latter in every Department. This does not imply that brown sugar is in any immediate danger of disappearing as one of the most common forms of sweets, because in itself it constitutes a

product of high food value and distinctive flavor which cannot be displaced among a great part of the working and farming population; for this reason it will always have a wide market, even though this be invaded by the systematic competition of refined sugar. *Panela* dissolved in hot water is a favorite morning beverage.

The tendency toward large-scale production in this industry continues to find favor and as a consequence the small sugar mills, particularly those located where soil and climatic conditions are poor or those too far from consuming centers or isolated because of lack of easy and cheap transportation, have been placed in a disadvantageous



EXPERIMENTAL RICE FIELD AT PALMIRA.

Special attention has been given to the cultivation of cereals in Colombia, particularly of rice. Greater areas planted to this crop have brought about a rapid and considerable reduction in the quantities imported.

position against an ever increasing competition. It would be better for sugar producers under such circumstances to replace the cultivation of sugarcane by that of some crop such as cotton, whose growing requirements are in general similar to those of sugarcane. Another substitute crop might be taken from among the oleaginous plants, the peanut, for instance, whose seed may be used in the flourishing industry in edible oils and their derivatives.

Cacao.—The interest in cacao cultivation and production has continued to grow, as shown in the new plantings and in the improvement of existing plantations. Many new nurseries were established during the year 1932, chiefly in the Departments of Antioquia, Caldas,

Huila, and Nariño. Special importance was given in the new area planted to the variety called *pajarito*, because of its vigor, early production and resistance to disease.

Greater stimulus was given to the careful cultivation of cacao trees already bearing by improved prices. This improved cultivation, which brought back into production many abandoned plantations, and the favorable climatic conditions throughout the year, account for the increase noted in production figures and the consequent lowering of imports.

Cotton.—The production of this fiber did not rise appreciably during 1932, and it may be said that cotton constitutes an exception to the strong movement toward the general broadening of agriculture during the past two years, already referred to.

There are regions in Colombia well suited to the cotton plant, both as to climatic conditions and soil requirements, and there certainly exists a strong need to increase production in view of the fact that imports of cotton lint, yarns, cloth, and hatting continued to constitute one of the largest items in the international commerce of the country.

The chief causes which have operated in preventing proper development of this crop have been, first of all, the excessively low prices prevailing in the outside market for several years on account of heavy yields; the tendency in each country to supply its own needs; the enormous stores of cotton on hand; and, lastly, the insect and rat plagues which in some sections of the country have prevented planting and in others largely ruined the crops already planted.

Just at present the economic prospect for cotton growers has changed materially, since the price in the United States has risen, and in view of the financial measures adopted by the latter country it is quite probable that the value of the fiber will continue to rise.

The Service of Regional Agronomists of the Ministry of Industries is paying particular attention to educating the farmers in the cultivation of the crop, and it is probable that 1933 will have seen some positive results.

Potatoes.—Potato production during the year 1932 almost entirely met the demands of national consumption, and as a result the imports were negligible.

During the first three months of 1933, potato imports amounted to 34,014 kilograms, valued at 1,018 pesos; at this rate imports for the entire year would be worth around 4,000 pesos.

In Cundinamarca a smaller acreage was planted to potatoes in 1932 than in 1931, and during the present year planting is still further restricted; this is largely due to the ravages in that Department of a species of root and tuber weevil, *Trypopermnon* spp., whose annual damage is steadily growing and for the control of which various

steps have been recommended, including crop rotation. For this reason wheat cultivation has largely replaced that of potatoes in those sections of the Department which have suffered most from the attacks of this insect. The reverse has been the case in Boyacá, however, where the potato tuber borer does not exist; here potato planting has increased and the 1933 crop grew very well.

During the month of May there broke out in some localities of the potato-producing regions of Cundinamarca and Boyacá the fungus disease known as *gota* or late blight caused by the *Phytophthora infestans*, and the cutworms called "muque" (*Euxoa* spp., *Feltia* spp.,



A CACAO PLANTATION.

As the present production of cacao is not sufficient for domestic requirements, its cultivation has been stimulated by the improvement of existing plantations and the establishment of new ones.

etc.) also appeared; however, the damage done by these was greatly reduced by disinfection with bordeaux mixture and arsenate of lead, sent to these regions by the Divisions of Entomology and Plant Pathology.

Prices of potatoes throughout the country were higher than formerly, and as a consequence plantings at the beginning of 1933 were greater than those in 1932.

Corn.—The corn yield of 1932 was lower than in 1931. This diminution can be traced chiefly to the summer heat near the middle of the year which was intense in several regions such as the Cauca Valley, the lowlands of Tolima and the plateaus around Bogotá

and other high places; and to the frosts of August and September, which were responsible for considerable losses. As a consequence, prices were generally higher than those of the preceding year.

A large part of the corn crop is used for fattening hogs, which with the accompanying lard industry reached a high level of production, principally along the coast in the Departments of Bolívar and Atlántico. The effect of corn production on that of animal lard, for which the former is the principal basis, can be seen from the reduced imports of hog lard from foreign countries. In the first three months of 1933 these amounted to 6,703 kilograms, worth 82 pesos, which shows this import item to have practically disappeared. The



A FIELD OF TOBACCO.

In various regions of Colombia large areas are devoted to the cultivation of tobacco. At the current rate of increase this crop may soon be included among the exports of the country.

development of the vegetable lard industry also contributed to this situation.

Beans, yuca, chick-peas, and lentils.—The imports of beans and other products here listed have been diminishing so rapidly that in 1932 they were relatively unimportant.

Production of this class of food products is very well distributed over the entire country. Their cultivation usually accompanies that of other more highly industrialized crops and commodities, such as coffee, sugarcane, and livestock-raising, and they are raised almost solely by the small farmer. The only limitations to the production of these foodstuff are those of extreme climatic conditions. For the foregoing reasons the supply of these articles (some of which, like

bananas and beans, form the basis of food in the hot regions of Colombia) is very steady and certain.

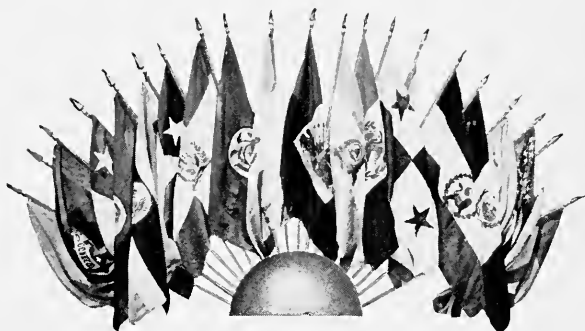
During the year 1932 prices were better than in 1931. Reports reaching the central government indicate that last year's plantings were normal throughout the country, and the crops in excellent growing condition.

With slight effort toward increasing production among the cool climate vegetables, such as chick-peas and lentils, importations in this class could be eliminated entirely.

Peanuts.—The cultivation of this plant was extended and production increased during the year 1932, particularly around Muzo (Boyacá) and San Antonio (Cundinamarca); yet in spite of this the consumption arose even faster, so that the factories making peanut oil have experienced a shortage of nuts.

Fruits.—The cultivation of fruits in cool, temperate, and tropical climates is destined to be one of the principal industries of Colombia. Their production can be increased on a large scale with the assurance of finding a ready market either within or outside the country. Brazil exports large quantities of oranges to Europe at good prices, due to the fact that they arrive when supplies of those from Spain and elsewhere are exhausted. In addition, factories for processing fruits can be established (*glacé* fruits, marmalades, etc.) and an interchange of fruits between different regions of the country effected.





PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Homage to Unánue and Finlay.—Two great physicians of the Americas have recently been honored by memorial meetings of the Washington Chapter of the Pan American Medical Association, of which chapter Surgeon H. S. Cumming is president and Dr. A. A. Moll secretary.

The Ambassador of Peru, Señor don Manuel de Freyre y Santander, invited the Association to meet in the Embassy in November to commemorate the centenary of the death of the Peruvian physician-statesman Hipólito Unánue (1755–1833), who was one of the outstanding men of his generation, and made his mark in a number of sciences as well as in public life. Several aspects of his career were emphasized. In addition to the excellent address of the evening by the Ambassador, tributes were paid to Unánue by Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union, Dr. Prentiss Wilson, president of the Medical Society of the District of Columbia, and Dr. George B. Tribble, president of the International Medical Club.

On December 3 the chapter met at the Cuban Embassy through the courtesy of the Ambassador designate of Cuba, Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, to honor the memory of Dr. Carlos Finlay on the hundredth anniversary of his birth. The Ambassador designate opened the meeting with a short address emphasizing the benefit to mankind from the birth of such a pioneer as Dr. Finlay, to whom the world owes the correct theory for the transmission of yellow fever and who cooperated with the United States Army in eradicating this dread disease in Cuba. Many personal anecdotes of Finlay were recalled by Brig. Gen. J. R. Kean, who said that he had never met a more noble or more unselfish person. Other speakers were Señor don Luis M. de Irujo, Chargé d’Affaires of Spain, Col. Roger Brooke,

and Dr. L. O. Howard. Mr. George O. Finlay of New York, a son of the Cuban physician, responded on behalf of the family. Dr. John O. McReynolds, president of the Pan American Medical Association, came from El Paso, Tex., to attend the meeting.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Book weeks.—The *Sociedad de Escritores de Chile* sponsored a book week, the first held in the country, which opened September 9, 1933. The use of the National Library was offered by its director, Dr. Alejandro Vieuña. Lectures were given each day to make present-day Chilean authors better known, and to trace the progress of national printing and journalism. An intensive exhibit of rare and beautiful editions of Chilean books was organized by the National Library under the direction of the Librarian. As a part of the program a literary contest was conducted and prizes were awarded for the best works in each branch of literature. Among those honored were Joaquín Edwards for a novel, Augusto D'Halman for a short story, and Nataniel Yáñez Silva for a play. The officers of the *Sociedad de Escritores* are Ernesto Montenegro, Januario Espiñosa, Nataniel Yáñez Silva, Tomás Gatica Martínez, and Antonio Acevedo Hernández. The board of directors is composed of Amanda Labarca Hubertson, Mariano Latorre and Agustín Edwards.

Ecuador celebrated its second book week from the 7th to the 14th of October 1933, in the Municipal Library of Guayaquil. There was an exhibition of all classes of books, showing different types of printing. A catalog of the exhibition has been compiled.

Anniversaries of literary interest.—The Centro Español de Instrucción of Santiago, Chile, honored the fourth centenary of the birth, on August 7, 1533, of Alonso de Ercilla Zúñiga, author of *La Araucana*, the epic of the Araucanian Indians, by establishing a library bearing his name. An interesting program of music and speeches was presented. Don Antonio Graelle, president of the society, Don Juvenal Hernández, rector of the Universidad de Chile, and Don Miguel Luis Amunátegui spoke. Dr. Samuel Lillo delivered an original poem "Canto a Ercilla", and a girls' chorus of 500 voices under the direction of Señor Melo Cruz sang.

A celebration of the centenary of the birth of Alberto Blest Gana, father of the Chilean novel and a noted diplomat, took place several months ago in the National Library in Santiago, Chile. It was postponed from 1930 to 1933.

Library Association of Mexico.—This association has published its bylaws in the *Boletín de la Asociación de Bibliotecarios Mexicanos* for

September 1933. According to these bylaws, there are two kinds of members, active and corresponding. In the former class are those who are employed in a governmental library or a private library recognized officially, while in the latter class are those engaged or interested in library work outside the Federal district. Plans for a library school under the direction of the association are being discussed.

Argentine copyright books.—A source of information to librarians and others interested in new books published in Argentina has been provided by the new copyright law of that country. According to this law three copies of each book registered must be deposited with the Government within three months after publication. A list of such deposits will be printed in the official newspaper, the *Boletín Oficial*, published daily in Buenos Aires.

Acquisitions.—The National Library of Brazil has forwarded to the Pan American Union a notable collection of Brazilian literature. Among those whose works are represented are Gilberto Amado: *A dansa sobre o abismo*; Agrippino Grieco: *Evolução da prosa brasileira*; Oliveira Vianna: *Evolução do povo brasileiro*; *Populações meridionais do Brasil*; Baptista Pereira: *Vultos e episódios do Brasil*; *Directrizes de Ruy Barbosa*, segundo textos escolhidos, anotados e prefaciados por Baptista Pereira; Ruy Barbosa: *O divórcio e o anarquismo*; *Oração aos moços*; *Palavras á juventude*; *Commentarios á constituição federal brasileira*, colligidos e ordenados por Homero Pires, volume 1; *Columnas de fogo*; *A grande guerra*; *Ruínas de um governo*; Carlos Maul: *O homem que se esqueceu de si mesmo*; Herman Lima: *Garimpos*; Xavier de Oliveira: *O exercito e o sertão*; Nina Rodrigues: *Os africanos no Brasil*; Pedro Calmon: *O Marquez de Abrantes*; *O rei cavalleiro, a vida de D. Pedro I*; Motta filho: *Uma grande vida* [Bernardino de Campos]; Homero Pires: *Junqueira Freire, sua vida, sua época, sua obra*; Afranio Peixoto: *Humour, ensaio de brevidário nacional do humourismo*; Joaquim Nabuco: *A intervenção estrangeira durante a revolta*; Eugenio de Castro: *Terra á vista*; H. Canabarro Reichardt: *Bento Gonçalves*; and Commandante Eugenio de Castro: *A expedição de Martim Affonso de Sousa, 4.º centenario da fundação de S. Vicente*.

Other books received during the past month are:

Inter-American conferences, 1826-1933; chronological and classified lists, prepared by Warren Kelchner. . . Washington, U.S. Govt. print. office., 1933. 34 p. 23½ cm. (U.S. Dept. of State. Conference series no. 16.)

Diccionario de jurisprudencia contencioso-administrativa. . . , por Gustavo Ramírez Olivella. . . 1ª ed. La Habana, Jesús Montero, 1933. 347 p. 24½ cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, volúmen XI.)

Anales históricos del Uruguay, [por] Eduardo Acevedo. [Montevideo, Casa A. Barreiro y Ramos, s.a., 1933] t.1: 558 p. 23 cm. (In Anales de la Universidad, entrega n.º 130.)

Arte y cultura popular, curso de conferencias de difusión cultural dadas en el salón de actos públicos de la Universidad de Montevideo bajo el patrocinio del rector Dr. Andrés C. Pacheco y el consejo universitario, bajo la dirección de María V. de Muller. Montevideo, 1932. 110 p. illus., ports. 29 cm.

Historia del ferrocarril de Guayaquil a Quito, páginas de verdad escritas por el General Eloy Alfaro, gestor de la magna obra. Quito, Editorial Nariz del diablo, 1931. 96 p. illus., ports. 19 cm.

Diccionario histórico biográfico del Perú, formado y redactado por Manuel de Mendiburu. 2ª edición con adiciones y notas bibliográficas publicada por Evaristo San Cristoval. . . Lima, Librería e imprenta Gil s.a., 1933. t. vii: 487 p. 23 cm.

Anuario bibliográfico mexicano de 1932, compilación de Felipe Teixidor. México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1933. 407 p. 22 cm.

Anuario del Instituto geográfico militar. N° 1, Santiago de Chile, 1891-1932. 129 p. fold. maps, fold. diagrs. 26½ cm.

La virgen del buen aire, por José Torre Revello. Buenos Aires, Talleres s.a. casa Jacobo Peuser, ltda., 1931. 44 p. 27 cm. (Publicaciones del Instituto de investigaciones históricas, n° lvii.)

Durante la reconquista [por] Alberto Blest Gana. [Santiago de Chile, 1933] 2 v. 18½ cm. (Colección de autores chilenos.)

Los cantores populares chilenos, [por] A. Acevedo Hernández. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1933. 296 p. 19 cm.

Historia de la aviación en Chile, [por] Enrique Flores Álvarez. [Santiago de Chile, Imprenta Rápida] 1933. t. i: 227 p. illus., pl., ports., tables. 22½ cm.

Elogio de don Eliodoro Yáñez y bosquejo panorámico de la prensa chilena [por] Agustín Edwards. . . Santiago de Chile, Imprenta Universitaria, 1933. 166 p. 22½ cm.

Índice bibliográfico de la Biblioteca "Jaramillo" de escritos nacionales, [compilado por] Miguel Ángel Jaramillo. Cuenca, Imprenta de la Universidad, 1932. t. i: 356 p. 24½ cm.

Fuentes bibliográficas para el estudio de la literatura chilena, [por] Raúl Silva Castro. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1933. 269 p. 27½ cm.

Primer congreso nacional del vino en Santiago de Chile, los días 2, 3, y 4 de enero de 1933. Santiago, Talleres gráficos del diario "La Tarde" [1933]. 262 p. 27 cm.

Opúsculos gramaticales, [por] Andrés Bello. [Santiago de Chile.] Editorial Nascimento [1933]. 516 p. 25 cm. (Obras completas, edición hecha bajo los auspicios de la Universidad de Chile, t. viii.)

Historia general de Chile, [por] Diego Barros Arana. Segunda edición corregida por el ejemplar que dejó revisado el autor e impresa en homenaje a su centenario. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1933. t. vii: 630 p. 25 cm.

Reseña histórica de Bani, por Joaquín S. Incháustegui. . . Valencia, Editorial Guerri, 1930. 226 p. illus., ports. 18 cm.

Homenaje a Rubén Darío, por Luis H. Debayle. . . Managua, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 36 p. 20½ cm.

Escritos de Don Dámaso Antonio Larrañaga. Los publica el Instituto histórico y geográfico del Uruguay. Edición nacional. . . Montevideo, Imprenta nacional, 1930. Atlas, parte II. 4 p. cxxx plates. 27 cm.

Constitución de la República de Guatemala decretada por la Asamblea nacional constituyente, en 11 de diciembre de 1879 y reformada por el mismo alto cuerpo en 5 de noviembre de 1887, 30 de agosto de 1897 y 20 de diciembre de 1927. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1933. 371 p. 26 cm.

Teoría y práctica de las pruebas judiciales según la legislación civil colombiana. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. T. III, de la prueba escrita. 457 p. 24½ cm.

Compilación parlamentaria y administrativa. . . Edición ordenada por la honorable Cámara de representantes y dirigida, concordada y anotada, por Horacio Valencia Arango. . . Tercera edición. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 718 p. 24½ cm.

The termination of multipartite treaties, by Harold J. Tobin. . . New York, Columbia university press, 1933. 321 p. 23 cm.

Socialização da escola; algunas das sugestões organizadas pela inspectora escolar Celina Padilha, em 1932. . . Rio de Janeiro, Typ. São Benedicto, 1933. 65 p., incl. table, diagr. 18½ cm.

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

Boletín de la Asociación de bibliotecarios mexicanos. Mexico, D. F., 1933. Época II, núm. 1, septiembre de 1933. 16 p. 17½ x 18 cm. Editor: Salvador Hernández Barrón. Address: Ave. Uruguay, 67, Mexico, D. F.

Gaceta peruana que discute toda la educación.—Lima, 1933. Año I, no. 1, 2ª quincena de septiembre de 1933. 8 p. 44 x 30 cm. Semi-monthly. Editor: Pedro Barrantes Castro. Address: Apartado de correos 2438, Lima, Peru.

El contador hondureño; órgano de la Sociedad de peritos mercantiles y contadores públicos. San Pedro Sula, 1933. Vol. I, no. 1, octubre de 1933. 32 p. 26½ x 19 cm. Monthly. Editor: Gregorio E. Rivera. Address: Apartado postal, no. 55, San Pedro Sula, Honduras.

Educação physica; revista tecnica de esportes e atletismo. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. 1er semestre, numero 1, 1932. 120 p. illus., ports., diagrs. 27 x 18 cm. Weekly. Editors: Paulo Lotufo and Oswaldo M. Rezende. Address: Caixa postal 3066, Rio de Janeiro.

Uruguay. Caracas, 1933. Año II, no. 10, septiembre de 1933. [32] p. ports., map. 32 x 23½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Juan Carlos Alzáibar. Address: Apartado no. 364, Caracas, Venezuela.

Mexico today. Dallas, Texas, 1933. Vol. 1, no. 1, November, 1933. 18 p. illus., port. 32 x 23 cm. Monthly. Address: 531 Fidelity Building, Dallas, Texas.

Turismo austral; revista mensual pro fomento de turismo en la zona austral de Chile. Valdivia, 1933. Año I, no. 1, agosto de 1933. 42 p. illus. 26½ x 19 cm. Editor: Charles O. Compley. Address: Casilla 671, Valdivia, Chile.

Revista de derecho; Concepción, año I, no. 2, septiembre de 1933. 115 p. 24½ x 17½ cm. Monthly. Address: Facultad de ciencias jurídicas y sociales, Universidad de Concepción, Casilla 49, Concepcion, Chile.

Boletín municipal de la República, servicio del Ministerio del interior. Santiago de Chile, 1932. No. 28, año III, noviembre de 1932. 80 p. illus., ports., diagrs. 26½ x 19 cm. Monthly. Address: Ministerio del Interior, Santiago, Chile.



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

RELEASE OF BLOCKED FOREIGN CURRENCIES IN ARGENTINA

Important action took place during November 1933 between the Government of Argentina and various private interests, for the release of foreign funds tied up in that country on account of exchange control. These funds, running into many millions of dollars, pounds sterling, francs, and other currencies, had been accumulating in Argentina since October 13, 1931, the date upon which the Argentine Government decreed that all future operations in foreign exchange should be under the supervision of an exchange control commission.

The first step to release the blocked funds was that taken between the Argentine Government and British interests, an arrangement growing out of the commercial treaty signed between Great Britain and Argentina on May 1, 1933. By this step the Government of Argentina issued 4-percent 20-year sterling bonds, at par, in exchange for funds in Argentina awaiting transfer into pounds sterling. It is reported that the bonds so issued amounted to £13,526,335, a sum believed sufficient to clear up practically all British funds frozen in Argentina.

The individuals and firms to whom such bonds were issued were, of course, still in a difficult position regarding conversion of the bonds into cash, as the sudden pouring into the London market of such a large amount of Argentine bonds would naturally have a weakening effect on their value. A plan was therefore adopted in London to enable the holders of the new bonds to obtain at least a portion of their value in cash immediately. This plan called for the formation of "The United Kingdom and Argentine 1933 Convention Trust." While the details of this plan are rather complicated, in general it resulted in the formation of a trust fund, whose assets would consist of £10,000,000 of 1933 Argentine 4 percent bonds, and £7,500,000 of British Government bonds of the 3 percent Conversion Loan of 1948-53. By combining these two types of bonds into a trust fund, the value of the Argentine bonds would not only be protected, and the market not disturbed, but as much as 20 percent of the value of their Argentine bonds could be paid immediately to those depositing such bonds in the trust in exchange for trust certificates.

Following closely upon the action taken with British interests, the Argentine Government entered into an agreement with firms and

individuals in the United States who had dollars blocked in Argentina. Under this plan, the American interests were offered the opportunity of exchanging the blocked funds for 2-percent Argentine treasury bills, payable in 180 equal monthly installments over a 15-year period, payments to begin at once. In addition, those accepting this plan were offered the opportunity of converting the treasury bills into 4-percent 20-year Argentine Government bonds, with amortization to begin the sixth year. It is understood that a sum equivalent to over \$23,000,000 was offered by American holders, to be exchanged for the treasury bills.

It is reported that arrangements for the unblocking of funds in Argentina in other European currencies have also been made with French and other interests, in an amount equivalent to over 320 million French francs, along lines similar to the British agreement.

It is believed that the action taken with the various foreign interests by the Argentine Government will clear up a substantial portion of the foreign funds blocked in Argentina, and will not only provide a measure of relief for those interests but will, at the same time, by immediately supplying the Argentine treasury with the funds in pesos equivalent to the amounts in foreign funds issued in bonds and treasury bills, place the treasury in a strong position.

With a view to preventing a recurrence of the situation which caused such large sums in foreign currencies to become blocked in Argentina, that is, a continued unfavorable balance of international payments, the Government is taking action along lines which will practically guarantee that the necessary exchange will be available to meet future foreign obligations, by so limiting imports that their payment will be assured from the proceeds of export sales, and from other credit items in the country's balance of payments.—H. G. S.

MEXICAN FINANCIAL LEGISLATION

The creation of a Government institution to take over the real-estate holdings of private banks, and the establishment of a 2,000,000-peso fund to provide credit for small merchants and industrialists, laborers, and employees are two of the latest developments in the Mexican scheme for the reorganization of the national financial structure. The early stages of this plan, including the reform of the monetary system, the reorganization of the Bank of Mexico to function primarily as a central bank of issue and rediscount, and the enactment of laws unifying the entire banking system of the country and regulating credit operations and the issuance and circulation of negotiable instruments, have already been discussed in the BULLETIN.¹

¹ See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for June and December, 1932.

The first of the two new measures recently enacted was planned to do away with what the Government considers the greatest obstacle to the expansion of credit in Mexico: the investment of a large part of the banking capital in real estate and mortgages. Thus, in the attempt to keep bank capital liquid, the General Law of Credit Institutions, promulgated on June 28, 1932, allowed the banks 3 years to dispose of the real estate and mortgages which, according to the provisions of this law, could no longer form part of their assets and which the banks had received by adjudication or in payment of debts prior to its enactment.² Realizing, however, that the forced sale of such real-estate holdings regardless of the condition of the market would result in losses to the banks, the Government has decreed³ the establishment of a new financial institution, the *Sociedad Financiera*, to which banks may turn over such property holdings as they have not been able to dispose of prior to the time limits placed upon their retention by the banking laws.

The purpose of this institution will be to administer, subdivide, colonize, and sell the real estate acquired from the banks and to collect the mortgage credits turned over to it as well as to organize credit unions and other enterprises necessary for the liquidation of these assets.

The capital of the *Sociedad Financiera* will be 100,000,000 pesos, half of which will be subscribed by the Government in land and cash and the other half by the banks. A certain percentage of the bank contributions must be in cash, this percentage to be fixed in each case by the Ministry of Finance. In return for their contribution, the banks will receive shares in the company.

Besides the real estate contributed by the banks the *Sociedad* will also take charge of any lands which the Federal Government or any official organization may turn over to it. Thus this new institution is expected not only to help the banks keep their capital liquid but to promote as well the Federal policy of colonization and dividing the land among small owners. The Government believes that the interest which the banks holding shares in the *Sociedad Financiera* will take in its transactions will make that institution a valuable intermediary in the promotion of agrarian loans, a form of credit much needed in Mexico and essential to the success of the program of colonization and division of the land, dependent as that program is upon the ability of those who acquire land to pay for it from the profits derived from the soil. When the realization of its immediate program and the condition of its assets permit, the *Sociedad Financiera* is expected to form

² Art. 4 of the temporary provisions of the General Law of Credit Institutions, *Diario Oficial*, Mexico City, June 29, 1932.

³ *Diario Oficial*, Mexico City, August 31, 1933.

the basis for the establishment of a National Mortgage Bank of Rural Credit.

The law providing for the establishment of the 2,000,000 peso fund ⁴ was enacted to furnish credit to the small industrialist, tradesman, laborer, and employee unable to obtain it through the regular banking channels because his individual needs and resources are so small that the banks cannot deal with him profitably. Recognizing the importance of the small producer in the national economy of Mexico, the General Law of Credit Institutions regulated the establishment and operation of societies, unions, and associations in which he and others of scanty resources may unite to secure credit. The purpose of the fund is to organize and promote cooperative credit societies. Part of the fund (100,000 pesos) will be used in organizing and supervising such institutions, and should this amount prove insufficient the federal treasury will defray any additional expenses. Since this is the first effective attempt to create such organizations in Mexico, the Federal Government will act as guarantor in their credit operations in order to avoid distrust on the part of the banks and the public. The fund will be administered by the Bank of Mexico which is authorized to invest it in subscriptions of not more than 40 percent of the shares constituting the fixed capital of credit cooperatives organized in accordance with article 151 of the General Law of Credit Institutions; in loans to subscribers of shares of the cooperatives up to 50 percent of the paid value of such shares; in discounting the credit instruments accepted, endorsed, or guaranteed by the cooperatives, and in guaranteeing the credits obtained by them; in purchases, advances, and loans on the mortgage bonds which they may issue; and in the establishment of a guarantee fund to cover any losses which the banks associated with the Bank of Mexico may suffer in their credit operations with the cooperatives.

To insure itself against heavy losses the Government has limited the size of the loans that a cooperative may make to its members, depending on the purpose of the loan and the kind of security offered. The law also provides that the members of such cooperatives must be laborers, employees, or small industrialists and merchants, and that the cooperative be organized and function in accordance with the provisions of the General Law of Credit Institutions. The fund is to be augmented by the deposits which the cooperatives are required to make in the Bank of Mexico and by additional appropriations to be made by the Federal Government as the condition of the treasury permits.—G. A. S.

⁴ *Diario Oficial*, Mexico City, August 28 and 30, 1933.

INSTITUTE FOR THE DEFENSE OF COSTA RICAN COFFEE

The Republic of Costa Rica, like its neighbor El Salvador, has recently adopted measures to protect and promote its coffee industry. But while the legislation of the latter, which is chiefly financial, puts the marketing of coffee under Government control, that of Costa Rica is more general and inclusive, centering authority in the Institute for the Defense of Costa Rican Coffee.

The Institute, which will have its headquarters in San José, was established by a law of July 24, 1933, and is empowered to deal with all phases of the coffee business from the cultivation of the berry to its ultimate disposal. It will be managed by a Board of Directors, composed of the Secretary of Agriculture, who will be *ex officio* its chairman, and four other members and three alternates, all of whom are to be appointed by the President. Two of the four and their alternates must be appointed upon recommendation of the coffee growers and processors, respectively. The Board will elect one of its members, other than the chairman, as Director of the Institute. He will be its legal representative. The Board of Directors is responsible for all acts of the Institute. At the expiration of the members' term of office—2 years—they are eligible for immediate reappointment. The Board is authorized to appoint a technical council of three agricultural experts, under the chairmanship of the Director of the National Agricultural Center, to develop the scientific phases of the Institute's program.

The Institute has authority to intervene in every phase of the coffee industry. Under its auspices a campaign for increasing technical knowledge of coffee growing will be undertaken by experiment farms and agricultural field agents, and the best methods of preparing coffee for the market explained. Advice on the installation or arrangement of equipment and machinery will be furnished, and such machinery and equipment, as well as fertilizers, will be imported at the request of growers and sold them at cost. The Institute will also interest itself in the living conditions of rural laborers, and take measures to improve them.

Foreign sales methods will be investigated by the Institute in order to lessen expenses for the industry and to suppress all unnecessary ones; for this purpose it will study the advisability of establishing in the major markets abroad offices for research and advertising.

The Institute will also study and propose the credit operations best adapted to promote the prosperity of the industry, with especial emphasis on obtaining funds for the grower at a low rate of interest.

It will negotiate for reduced costs of transportation, both by land and by sea, study national and municipal taxes, and recommend adjusted tariffs on tools and machinery needed in the industry, proposing to the Legislature measures to bring about advisable reforms. Through the National Insurance Bank, the Institute will arrange for exporters more favorable terms on maritime insurance on coffee and other Costa Rican products.

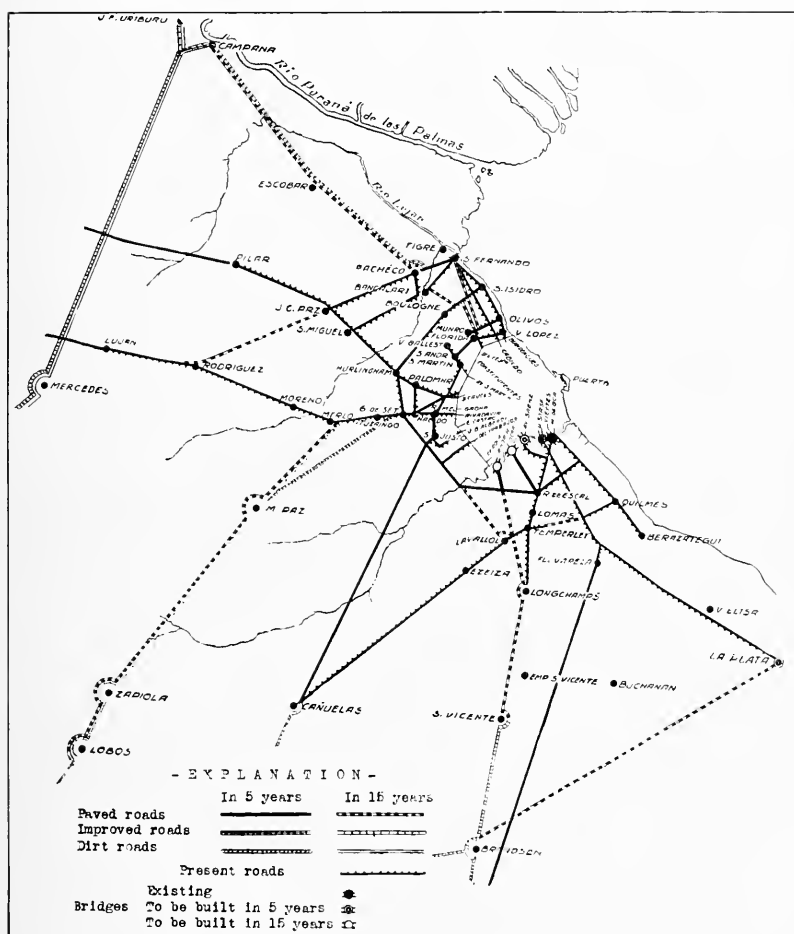
In addition to keeping track of the effectiveness of all regulations issued on behalf of the cultivation, production, and sale of coffee, the Institute will organize a Coffee Exchange in Costa Rica both to promote the sale of coffee in the Republic and to put foreign sales on a sounder basis.

The Institute will publish a monthly bulletin especially devoted to coffee propaganda and to information as to methods of growing and cleaning the berry. Besides summarizing the efforts of the organization on behalf of the industry, the bulletin will carry complete coffee statistics, including quotations in the principal markets, stocks of the product on hand there, sales made, and estimates of world production—everything, in fact, that might be of value to those interested in the progress of the industry.

For carrying out the program of the Institute, the Board of Directors will solicit the cooperation of the coffee growers, but all regulations which it issues shall be binding on producers and exporters. Failure to comply with any of its regulations will be punishable by fine, the sums so levied by the courts to be deposited in the fund used for maintaining the Institute.

The income of the Institute will be derived from several sources. In addition to the above-mentioned fines, it will receive a direct appropriation by Congress and the revenue from consular fees set apart for coffee propaganda. It is granted a monopoly on the importation of bags for shipping coffee; these are to be sold at cost plus a charge of 10 céntimos apiece, which is to be added to the funds of the Institute. One half the profits made by the National Insurance Bank on coffee shipping insurance is also to be credited to the Institute. In its expenditures, all three phases of the industry are to be taken into account—the agricultural, the commercial, and the social (sanitary problems and the improvement of living conditions for rural workers). The Board of Directors must present annually to Congress, through the Ministry of Agriculture, a detailed budget for the following year, and a full report of its activities.

Regulations for putting this law into effect will be issued by the President after consultation with the Institute.



THE ROAD SYSTEM OF BUENOS AIRES PROVINCE, ARGENTINA.

A recent decree signed by President Agustín Justo of Argentina approved the extension of the road system of Buenos Aires Province, as proposed by the National Roads Bureau, and the five-year building plan for the years 1933-1937. The entire program, which will require an expenditure of 21,300,000 pesos, is to be completed in 15 years.

UNEMPLOYMENT MEASURES IN URUGUAY

As a further step in the fight against unemployment which the Government of Uruguay has been waging for some time, the President was authorized by Law No. 9080 of August 19, 1933, to set aside from the present budget sufficient funds to give immediate work to the unemployed. The money is to be distributed to the Departmental governments in proportion to the unemployment in each one, without prejudice to projects already begun by the several ministries.

This was the third appropriation of funds by the Government within a year. On August 31, 1932, a law was signed authorizing the expenditure of 1,000,000 pesos on public works, the sum to be taken from the appropriation of the Bureau of Roads and Hydrography and to be spent under the direction of the National Administrative Council either on new projects or on those already authorized but uncompleted through lack of funds. In deciding the projects to be undertaken, the National Administrative Council was charged to give preference to those requiring the most manual labor. The second appropriation was made available by executive decree of August 7, 1933, according to which 360,000 pesos, or 20,000 pesos apiece for each of the 18 Departments, were appropriated for highway construction. This decree carried the proviso that the daily wage scale on these works should not exceed that paid by the municipal authorities of the respective Departments.

The task of selecting those to work on these projects was placed, in all three decrees, in the hands of county commissions. These were created by a law of October 23, 1931, to distribute work on public-works projects to the unemployed. They were to submit to the contractor or director of each enterprise lists of unemployed from which to choose all laborers, 80 percent of whom should be natives of Uruguay, preference to be given to married men and those residing near the site of the work to be undertaken. The commissions were to be appointed by the National Administrative Council, and to consist of five men who were to serve for one year, then being ineligible for reappointment until two years had elapsed. By the law of August 31, 1932, membership on the commissions was increased to 15, and the power of appointment to them was vested in the Departmental assemblies. The law of August 7, 1933, provided that the county commissions of each Department should be appointed by Departmental Deliberative Boards of three members named by the

Honorary Committee on Unemployment, which had absolute authority to superintend the administration, distribution, and use of funds, and was to be the court of appeals in all questions arising between city authorities, deliberative boards, and county commissions.

The law of August 19, 1933, provided that laborers might be employed by half-days, alternate days, weeks, or fortnights, as should seem most advisable, and the President was empowered to suspend temporarily the use of machines and other tools not absolutely indispensable in any job. The law of April 18, 1933, provided that in all public works undertaken by the administration the necessary laborers should be chosen by lot.

In addition to these measures, recognized as temporary to meet an emergency, a study was to be begun at once to find fundamental and permanent solutions of the problem. A committee of 11 members was to direct this study; it was composed of five members of the Deliberative Assembly, two of whom must be members of the social legislation and the promotion of production committees, two appointees of the Executive, one of whom must be his appointee to the Pension bank, the Director of the National Labor Bureau, and one representative apiece of the National Chamber of Commerce, the Rural Federation, and the Rural Association of Uruguay. This committee was granted offices in the Ministry of Industry, and was to present a report within sixty days.

By this law, the President was required to inform the Deliberative Assembly each month of the sums expended in accordance with its provisions.



CHILD WELFARE CONFERENCE IN ARGENTINA

The First National Conference on Neglected and Delinquent Children was held in Buenos Aires from September 25 to 30, 1933. The meetings were attended by more than 90 delegates, representing the national and provincial governments; the courts charged with carrying out the law establishing the National Child Welfare Commission; official, private, scientific, and technical institutions concerned with the training of neglected children; the National Child Welfare Commission; and the Buenos Aires Welfare Society.

At the opening session Dr. Manuel de Iriondo, Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, presided, and Dr. Jorge M. Coll, President of the Commission, gave the principal address. He summarized the achievements of the Commission and pointed out the need for fundamental legislation to be the Magna Carta for Argentine children, such legislation to be supplemented by local laws.



CHILD WELFARE INSTITUTIONS IN ARGENTINA.

Upper: Home for foundlings maintained by the Charity Society of Buenos Aires. Lower: Sun baths at a children's sanitarium.

An excellent summary of the aims of the conference was given in an editorial in *La Nación* of Buenos Aires. It reads:

In the presence of the President of the Republic and under the chairmanship of the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, the National Conference on Neglected and Delinquent Children opens today. The character of the delegates, the institutions they represent, and the importance of the subjects to be treated make this meeting especially notable, as it confronts one of the social problems of great concern today. The purpose of the conference is to improve existing legislation dealing with minors, legislation which could well be completed with new and preventive measures recommended by experience and by a study of the many complicated aspects of the question. A beginning was made in the establishment of the National Child Welfare Commission by the law passed in 1919, in which the Civil Code was amended in those sections dealing with the exercise and loss of parental rights and forms of guardianship; special court treatment for minors under 18, either the authors or the victims of a crime, was prescribed; and articles intended to provide for the protection and reform of neglected or delinquent children were included. But before this important social goal is reached much still remains to be done, by creating proper organizations and adequate institutions, and by planning better judicial procedure. Hence the timeliness of this conference, whose conclusions will be of value to all sections of the nation, since the Provincial governments are represented in it by their respective delegates. One of the principal points to be considered is the creation of juvenile courts and the limitation of ordinary courts in provincial districts. This specialization, which has been successful in many civilized countries, is necessary for differentiating between the sentences pronounced on minors and those for adults. No less important are the organization of parole and the special training of court and institution officers, which will also be discussed by the conference.

The program includes a series of most significant topics dealing with the education of neglected or delinquent minors. A study will be made of different kinds of establishments, such as the cottage system and schools of institutional type, as well as homes to prolong the supervision of those released from other institutions. Educational methods and curricula will be taken into account, as well as all factors contributing to character-building, such as religious influences, patriotic education, games, physical training, and other stimuli.

It is to be hoped that the results of the conference which opens today may be in proportion to the noble spirit of social unity and of commendable patriotism which planned this undertaking, and that these sentiments may be duly translated into efficacious reforms which may bring about their purpose, for nothing is as essential to the formation of a strong and healthy nation as the care and education of neglected children.

Five plenary sessions were held on the mornings of the conference; the afternoons were spent in visiting welfare institutions maintained by the National Child Welfare Commission and by other organizations. Trips to other institutions outside Buenos Aires were arranged for the delegates to take after the conference had closed.

At the close of the final session the following recommendations were approved:

The basic national law on the rights of children and adolescents should cover, as an integral part, all civil and penal questions affecting their physical and moral welfare.

Placing a minor under the guardianship of a person not his parent should be strictly forbidden except with the permission of the authorities.

Parents should be obliged to pay a monthly sum, however small, for the care of children in public or private institutions.

For a minor who has been the victim of crimes or whose parents have been negligent in supporting him, a guardian *ad litem* should be appointed to represent him before the proper authority.

Legislation should be passed dealing with adoption in the modern concept of material, moral, and legal protection for minors under 18 years of age.

Minors with chronic diseases or incipient tuberculosis, epileptics, backward children, or those with any severe physical defect should be separated from normal or healthy minors and cared for in special institutions.

Minors from 14 to 18 years of age who are not dangerous, no matter what crime they may be charged with, should not be imprisoned, but given educational and protective treatment.

Under no circumstances should a minor be committed to prison as a preventive measure, nor should he be incarcerated or placed under custody in common prisons or other places where adults are detained.

No information concerning a minor should be published, and it should be forbidden to give to the press his name or other characteristics which might affect his morale. Penal legislation dealing with crimes committed against minors should be revised with special attention to the age of the minor, and the penalties for certain offenses increased. The list of such crimes should include the minor's removal by his parents from guardianship granted by the courts; deprivation of food or care; excessive work or punishment; obligation to beg by older persons; or, if less than 12 years of age, accompanying older persons who beg.

The incorporation of all institutions for the protection of children should be required.

All societies or institutions receiving national, provincial, or municipal subsidies should be obliged to admit, at the instance of child-welfare authorities, a number of children proportionate to the subsidy granted.

Public institutions for minors throughout the country should be under the supervision of a commission with financial and administrative authority, similar to the National Child Welfare Commission, and with ample authority under the law.



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A GLIMPSE OF CUZCO, PERU

FEBRUARY

1934

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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Director General

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Assistant Director

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; and the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

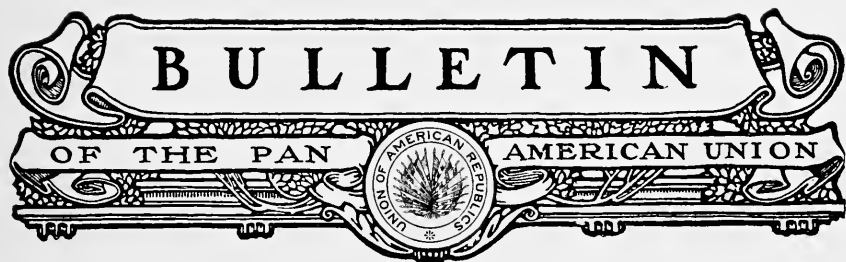
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THE CATHEDRAL PLAZA IN CUZCO, PERU.

The Republic of Peru will celebrate on March 23, 1934, the four hundredth anniversary of the founding of the Spanish city of Cuzco, before the arrival of the conquistadors the capital of the Incan Empire.



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FEBRUARY 1934

No. 2

CUZCO

THE FOURTH CENTENARY OF THE FOUNDING OF THE SPANISH CITY¹

By "ICARO"

CUZCO! How much poetry, how much legend, how much illusion is contained in this name whose etymology gives the city the proud title of "center" or "omphalos." Cuzco, whose renown is equal to that of the oldest and most illustrious cities in the world, is history incarnate—history written in the venerable stones of its palaces and temples and in the megalithic ruins of a distant past whose origin is inextricably commingled with myth. One cannot help thinking how lengthy must have been the task of raising the sacred walls of Koricancha [the Incan Temple of the Sun], which are the supreme consecration of the art and culture of an indigenous civilization as full of originality and innate strength as the cultures of Egypt and of Greece. Cuzco, then, is one of the few cities which, like milestones, mark the course of human history. It will be four hundred years in March 1933 that the Spaniards organized a city government in the erstwhile capital of the Incas.

In the dawn of time Cuzco was the cradle of the first aboriginal tribes, later the seat of an immense empire, yesterday the emporium of colonial luxury; today, a republican city, it shows vestiges of every stage of its development, traces of its different metamorphoses, yet without losing its individual aspect, its real character. It is the same city that Manco made the capital of his empire, that witnessed the fratricidal struggles of Almagro and Pizarro, that heard its pavements echo to the masterful step of Bolívar. It has, then, the double prestige of belonging both to yesterday and to today, and of still keeping a residue of the past in its customs. For progress has not

¹ Translated from "El Comercio", Lima, May 8, 1933.

dared completely to tear down the old Incan walls, neither has it succeeded in destroying the ancient customs of the inhabitants. The processions of the present day still recall the sumptuous liturgies of the Empire and the pomp of colonial religious activities. The old Plaza Mayor is the same Amarucancha, slightly reduced in extent, in which immense multitudes congregated to witness the solar rites. How different is this Cuzco, full of legend, graced with memories, imbued with mystery, from the rush of New York, the gaiety of Paris, the commercial bustle of Buenos Aires! Here the traveler will



A STREET IN CUZCO.

The narrow Cuzco streets are lined with houses which frequently combine fragile balconies with the massive walls that in some instances date from Incan days.

not find the vertigo of great skyscrapers, nor the charm of nocturnal pleasures, nor the eagerness of industry and commerce; but in contrast an atmosphere full of significance, surroundings evoking the memories of a thousand years. Everything speaks of the past: the narrow Incan street; the fragile Moorish balcony, its delicate lacy carvings clinging to the stout wall; the church whose vaults contain the tombs of imperial princes and of conquistadors. Cuzco is a lesson in history; it is also a means of leaving the present for the domains of poetry and of legend.

The perfect guide to Cuzco which the steadily increasing stream of tourists calls for has not yet been written. There are scattered monographs and incomplete studies, but they do not reflect the true aspect of present-day Cuzco. As for the idea of this city that is current abroad, it is so far from the truth, so vague, so confused, that it does not even begin to mirror the city as it really is. The traveler has, then, to trust to luck to discover here a convent, there an old aristocratic mansion, still farther on a temple displaying the wonder of its facade, whose stone has yielded to the hand of the artisan. But this very

APSE OF THE CHURCH
OF SANTO DOMINGO.

On the site of the Incan Temple of the Sun and utilizing parts of its masonry walls, arose in colonial times the church and convent of Santo Domingo.



fact is perhaps a greater attraction for those travelers who prefer to be their own guides. To walk about disinterring the past, deciphering it in every stone, in every piece of ironwork, in each bit of carving, is a pleasure reserved for discriminating minds.

But side by side with the temples and the palaces which reveal unaided the greatness of their origin, exist customs which need explanation and comment. Cuzco, indeed, is one of those cities where typical ancient customs are encountered in greatest abundance. The Indian has remained as unchanged as his thousand-year-old stones in

the face of the invasion of progress. He still worships his native city with the same devotion as of yore, and in his innermost consciousness the idolatrous superstitions of yesterday mingle with the religious practices of today. He is strongly conservative. The progress attained by a civilization which he only half realizes and which his inner self rejects has no meaning for his senses. He takes refuge in the past, as a tortoise in his shell, and that is why Cuzco still keeps today its individual and characteristic appearance.

Its feasts, its mourning, its daily habits, all have a remote, archaic stamp, perfumed with tradition and legend. Its beautiful processions, in which the ancient saints are clad in rich brocades and the wailing crowds in gay ponchos, recall vividly the sumptuous cortèges when the Inca returned from conquering new lands for his Empire, or even more, the liturgical parades of the Kapac-Rayni. Any one who has witnessed the procession of the Christ of the Temblors² and thus come to know one of the most dramatic pages in the history of Cuzco cannot fail to connect the tremendous cry which the multitude utters as everyone prostrates himself when the image turns for a last look on the people before entering the temple, with that piercing cry which the populace uttered when Tupac Amaru, from the gallows, turned to look for the last time on the people whose legitimate lord and master he was. The chronicles state that the terrible wail of the multitude on that occasion was heard for many leagues around. It might be considered the last protest of a wounded and conquered people face to face with their executioners and oppressors. Since that event, doubtless in commemoration of the tragic date, the frightful cry is repeated every year during the procession of the miracle-working Christ.

Of this same Christ singular marvels are told. It was a present from Charles V when the fanatic Valverde, already a bishop, still ruled the nascent diocese, and its craftsmanship is akin to the most famous religious sculpture of the sixteenth century. It is imposingly ugly. The figure, muscular and robust, hangs from the cross, the flesh lacerated by torture, with a realism that is truly moving. Steeped in the blessed perfume of incense, blackened for four centuries by the smoke of thousands of tapers, it has the same prestige as miraculous images of greater renown. It is called the Christ of the Temblors because the convulsions of the earth ceased immediately after it had been taken in procession through the city during the disastrous earthquake of 1650. The ingenuous piety of the Indians does not limit its power to earthquakes alone, but attributes to it many other virtues and miracles, from converting the heretic to restoring sight to the blind, speech to the mute, and the use of his limbs to the paralytic.

² Held on Monday of Holy Week.—Editor.

But the Christ of the Temblors is not the only marvel of the Cuzco churches. Numberless treasures adorn its temples in spite of the constant and systematic despoiling which they have suffered from the hands of the stupid or the greedy. The Virgin of the Almudena and the incomparable pulpit of San Blas, both works of native sculptors, are artistic jewels. The beauty of the pulpit of San Blas in particular cannot be exaggerated. Carved, according to legend, from a single piece of wood, it shows us what heights ability and patience can attain when at the service of an artist's inspiration.

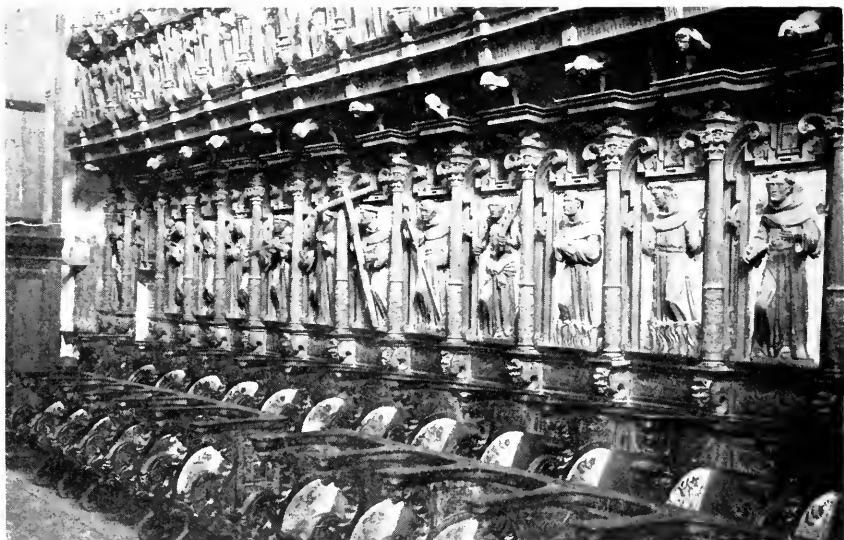
THE UNIVERSITY OF CUZCO.

Founded in 1692, the university ranks as one of the oldest of Latin America. Its simple patio offers a sharp contrast with its ornate facade. Over the doorway two stylized Indian figures denote the influence of native art.



How much imagination there is in its conception, what assurance in its execution! The wood becomes subtle, changes to arabesques or the finest lace. And what can be said of La Compañía, whose interior is all aglow with living gold? The altar pieces of this temple, of the purest Churriguerresque style, still gleam in spite of the toll of time and neglect.

The Cathedral; La Merced; Santo Domingo; Santa Catalina; San Francisco; and marvelous San Sebastián, the work of the noted Cuzcan builder Sahuarahuara—Cuzco is the Peruvian city which has the most beautiful and elaborate churches. If one of them can boast



TREASURES OF CUZCO CHURCHES.

The architecture and embellishments of the churches of Cuzco, particularly the cathedral, bear mute testimony to the artistic ability of the colonial builders. Upper: The choir stalls of the cathedral. Left: Pulpit in the Church of San Blas, said to have been carved from a single piece of wood.



of its facade, another is proud of its altars, and a third would not exchange for either its pulpits or its choir.

The noble, dignified palaces and mansions equal the churches in architectural richness, as may be proved by studying those of the Admiral and of the Marquis of Valle Umbroso.

The fact is that in Cuzco everything is great, beautiful, noble, rich. Although the Incan town was made into a university and theological city, it did not thereby lose its past pomp and glory. The chroniclers of the period were loud in their praise of the splendor of life in Cuzco during the Colony. Everything was an excuse for great feasts and extravagant expenditures. The birth of a prince, the marriage of a princess, the arrival of a viceroy, the death of a bishop, the excommunication and burning of a few heretics—all served as pretexts for unique festivities and ceremonies. The great lords, masters of countless encomiendas, could equal their predecessors, the despoiled princes, in the way they displayed precious metals in their households. To a greater or a less degree, all used silver services and decorated their halls with rich Venetian mirrors and canvases painted by the most glorious brushes in Spain. Until quite recently, Grecos, Murillos, and Titians filled the churches and private galleries.

The bishopric of Cuzco enjoyed a fabulous income, and its bishops lived in the midst of a princely splendor that bordered on the worldly. And it was not odd that the bishops regaled themselves like pagan royalty when even the priests enjoyed unequaled luxury. In this connection the story is told that, when Bishop Las Heras went to make his pastoral visit to Chumbivileas, the parish priest, Dr. Manuel de Boza, overlaid with silver the entire road which His Highness was to take in passing through the town. A devout woman, María Angola, not content with giving fifty pounds of gold for the casting of the great bell of the cathedral, threw all her jewels into the crucible where the metal was being melted. A bishop presented a silver float for the Corpus procession; another gave a monstrance which, apart from its great intrinsic value, has no peer as a marvel of the silversmith's art. The Marquis of Valle Umbroso, a gentleman who put on many airs, fed his dogs from silver bowls. The Duke of San Carlos, the first Cuzcan aristocrat to be made a grandee of Spain of the first class, possessed the finest Andalusian jennets in the viceroyalty.

But Cuzco was not distinguished only for tangible wealth. Famous men were born on her soil and gave luster to the region of their birth. A Cuzcan was Garcilaso, the erudite commentator on the past glories of his native land. Cuzcans too were Lunarejo and the priest Sahuarahuara—the first a fountain of wisdom, an inexhaustible spring of knowledge, the unsurpassed teacher of teachers; the second, the author of the most sublime prayer which man has ever written. Cuzco

may also claim Father Ojeda, because in his cell in the monastery of Santo Domingo he conceived and wrote his immortal *Cristiada*, a poem which figures among the great songs of humanity. Natives of Cuzco were Don Diego Sayri Tupac, prince by birth and by his exceptionally rare spirit, and that intrepid Tupac Amaru, the last Inca and the first victim of the movement to liberate his country. Gamarra, the valiant and ill-starred warrior who died fighting at Ingavi, was likewise a Cuzcan, as was his wife, the spirited "Marshallless" Doña Francisca Zubiaga de Gamarra, a kind of Amazon who with her delicate woman's hands subjugated Peru in the dawn of its republican life. If all the names deserving of mention were included, the list would be longer than this sketch.

At present Cuzco, wearied with glories and afflictions, tired of mourning and greatness, rests wrapped in its fame as a city many centuries old; this is a greater honor than that more recently conferred upon her, "Archaeological Capital of America." She now lies exposed to universal scrutiny from the air, a route which only poets dreamed of, and which mechanical progress places from time to time at the disposal of whatever motives of curiosity and interest allure the student, the intelligent tourist, and even the blasé traveler who traverses the world in order to rid himself of the ill-humor which darkens his life. Along the skyways as well as over the railroad men will travel from many lands to visit Cuzco, to return marveling at its past splendor and the poetic melancholy of its present.



FORTRESS OF SACSABUAMAN, CUZCO

CUZCO

By LUIS ALAYZA Y PAZ SOLDÁN ¹

I HAVE soared with the eagles to the top of Ollantaytambo, a vision of the past.

Directly opposite are the quarries worked by countless subjects of the Inca. It required the strength of a man to wrest these monoliths from their bed, and the gentleness of a woman in love to make them so smooth. One would say that they had been polished with caresses, rather than with the chisel. The face of the rock has acquired mellowness; the sharp edges have become softened.

Here arose walls of stone fitted together as perfectly as a Venetian mosaic. But these are egyptian mosaics, constructed by architects who worked with mountains and abysses.

Two great heights: Ollantaytambo and the quarries. Between them flows the copious Vilcanota. How did human ants ferry across it those enormous monolithic masses? Archaeology asks in vain. The wise are silent, but I know: on wings of the roc, that gigantic bird of Sinbad the Sailor.

At my feet I seem to see a Virgin of the Sun bathing. Delicate, bronzed, graceful, unclad, she advances with elastic feline steps. . . . Her dark silken tresses hang free; her shadowy eyes gleam with the unfathomable inheritance of ancient races. He who could decipher the message of her glance would read there the history and legends of a race whose origin is lost in the shadows. Her exquisite figure conceals strong muscles. She is a coffer of sandalwood filled with jewels.

Modest, nay, even humble, is the pool in which she bathes. Something more might have been expected of the gallantry of the powerful Inca, a mother-of-pearl shell for that Venus of the Vilcanota. For what purpose, pray, is the Inca keeping gold and silver, emeralds and beryls? With the sobriety of a Spartan and the distinction of an Athenian, the Quechua king bejewels the *ñusta* with the cascade of diamonds falling from the rock to the polished granite bowl.

Next appear the conquistadors.

They twisted the rock to give birth to the salomonic column. They bent the virginal line of the monolith and the arch was born. They spun the granite to weave the airy lace of church porticoes and built, stone on stone, mast-like towers wherein to hang the bronze bells which hold converse with the heavens.

When the angular Incan city began to fill with voluptuous arches and sprightly columns, the burning glance of the conquistadors was vanquished by the eyes of the Quechua maidens. And there arose

¹ Translated by permission from "Dau-El-Kamar (Apuntes de Viaje)", Lima, 1931.



INCAN RUINS



THE BATH OF THE ÑUSTA (VIRGIN OF THE SUN), OLLANTAYTAMBO.

generations with eyes of blazing brilliancy and a sinuous Moorish walk, statuesque of build and marvellous as the *ñustas*.

I awake.

The republican city drowns in its dull century-old sleep, a sleep of oblivion, a drugged lethargy.

Like threads of different colors in one fabric, angular Incan walls are interspersed with colonial volutes, trapezoidal doorways with round arches, serpents of the Andine Olympus with coats of arms showing Spanish lineage. Two imperial civilizations are intermingled, and through them can be discerned the commonplaces of an uncomprehending republic.

I question the granite, and its hollows reply with a voice like the murmuring of a sea shell. I question the Vilcanota about the ages which have been, and its deep, silent flow replies with the clamor of mystery. I question the city and the grimaces of fantastic stones tell me strange tales.

I despair. No human lip will ever pronounce the open sesame to disclose the secrets of the monolith, which may be broken but never violated.

No one will awaken the beauty sleeping amid granite lace work.

Cuzco, the despair of archaeologists and an inexhaustible treasure for the poet!



PATIO OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CUZCO.

MAYA SCULPTURES RESCUED FROM THE JUNGLE

By J. ALDEN MASON

Curator of the American Section of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania; Director of the First and Second Eldridge R. Johnson Middle American Expeditions in 1931 and 1932

WITH the opening of the Maya Hall of the University Museum in Philadelphia on December 12, 1933, artists and archeologists were enabled for the first time to see original examples of massive Maya monuments without the expense and trouble of a long and arduous journey into the forests of Guatemala, Honduras, and Southern Mexico. For many years cast reproductions of such monuments, especially from the sites of Copán in Honduras and Quiriguá in Guatemala, have been among the most admired exhibits in many museums, and originals of smaller sculptures, such as lintels, have been among the most prized possessions of such institutions as the Peabody Museum in Cambridge and the British Museum. But to see original monolithic stelae one had to visit the actual sites which are, with one exception, very inaccessible.

Large sculptured monuments are characteristic of the so-called Old Maya Empire, which flourished in lowland Guatemala and the surrounding region in the first millennium of our era. Of the many ancient abandoned cities of these people only one is accessible by railroad. This is Quiriguá, on the road from the port of Puerto Barrios to Guatemala City. None of the others, I believe, can even be reached by automobile, unless it be Palenque when both the road and the automobile are in good condition, an unusual combination of circumstances. And many or most of the cities can be reached only after days of arduous and difficult travel on muleback along forest trails made by chicle gatherers. Some massive monuments were carved in the more-often-visited region of the Late Maya Empire in northern Yucatan, but these are generally smaller and of much inferior art, generally broken, and of slight interest except to professional archeologists.

Furthermore, the monuments now shown are not merely almost the only large sculptures ever removed from their original sites, but are among the finest, if not indeed the most artistic Maya monuments known.

First let me say that an equal number of large monuments of similar artistic quality are now in the National Museum of Guatemala in

Guatemala City, whither they were sent by the University Museum Expeditions—the First and Second Eldridge R. Johnson Middle American Expeditions, so named for the philanthropist of Moores-town and Camden, N.J., who munificently gave the major part of the funds for the prosecution of the work. For the expeditions were not among those clandestine ones which so often cause Latin Americans to write letters to their newspapers, protesting against the despoliation of their country, but worked with the cordial cooperation of the Guatemalan Government under a contract according to which the latter retains title to all the objects secured, half being sent to the National Museum in Guatemala, and half to the University Museum on long-term loan. It would have been impossible to carry out this work successfully without such cordial cooperation from all sources. Not only did the Guatemalan Government offer all possible facilities, but the Mexican Government permitted free entry of equipment and export of antiquities in transit through Mexican territory, the sole feasible route for reaching the site, and the several steamship and railroad companies granted free or reduced freight and passenger rates. To all these organizations our thanks are due and gladly expressed.

Let me say furthermore that almost all these persons and organizations are highly pleased at the rescue of these unique art objects from certain ultimate destruction in the deep jungles, and have no feeling that their removal was an act of vandalism. To remove such monuments from protected and accessible sites, such as Quiriguá, would certainly be blameworthy vandalism. But those of Piedras Negras lay for a thousand years deep in the tropical forest, far from any route of travel. Not one stood erect, and the majority had been broken in falling. Those that fell with the carved face up had their sculptures completely destroyed by the action of rains and moss before they were discovered thirty-eight years ago, and most of those that fell face down were turned up at that time, and have suffered considerably during this short period. Passing chicle gatherers and lumbermen hit them with their machetes or carved their initials upon them, and probably not over five archeologists ever made the difficult journey to see them. How much better that they should be preserved under cover and seen by more persons in one day than would ever see them before their complete destruction at Piedras Negras!

The story of the discovery and removal of these monuments is an interesting one. Naturally this work was only one part, and rather a side-line, of the work of the Eldridge R. Johnson Expeditions, but it is the phase of most interest to the general public. The greater part of the work has consisted of excavations of the pyramids and

temples, the surveying of the site, and the making of stratigraphical studies, as a result of which our knowledge of the architecture and architectural development and of the culture of the Maya of the Old Empire has been greatly increased.

Piedras Negras lies on the Usumacinta River which, in its middle course, forms the boundary between Guatemala and Mexico. In this it differs from many other cities which are at present far from any large supply of water, and which offer great difficulties to archeologists working there. This condition may be due to the fact that the old reservoirs have now been choked. Across the river from Piedras Negras loom the hills of Chiapas, Mexico. Further upstream the river and its tributaries, with other names, drain much of Guatemala, and further downstream the wide river flows through Mexico, uniting with the Grijalva not far above the port of Álvaro Obregón, formerly Frontera, to form one of the largest rivers in North America. Piedras Negras is not far over the Mexican border into Guatemala; the method of access is from Álvaro Obregón, up the river to the town of Tenosique in Tabasco, Mexico, the head of navigation and the headquarters of the expedition. From Tenosique, Piedras Negras may be reached in one hard day's travel. A journey overland from Guatemala City to Piedras Negras would require several weeks of the hardest travel on narrow chicle trails, over high mountains and through dense tropical forests.

Were the river navigable to Piedras Negras, the exportation of the monuments would have been a relatively simple matter. But between Tenosique, or the head of navigation a few miles above it, and Piedras Negras is a series of impassable rapids and great falls. A road about thirty miles long, therefore, had to be built from the ruins around these. For most of this distance nothing more was necessary than clearing the forest for a sufficient width, cutting down the trees and leveling off the stumps, for the country is in the main flat, but in some places considerable grading was required, and a number of small bridges over gullies and small streams had to be constructed. Such a road is of course only passable in the dry season, and in the heavy annual rains the bridges are washed out and some of the grading destroyed, but it served to carry the wagons with the monuments during the short dry season when the expedition can work. This dry season is from March until June, inclusive.

To avoid the rapids completely the road would have had to be made a great deal longer at much greater expense, so it was carried to the river above the last rapid, which can be run by dug-out canoes or rafts during low water. Here the boxes with the monuments were unloaded from the wagons, which were drawn by teams of oxen, and when the river was at a proper stage, rafts were built and the monuments loaded on them and run through the rapids. Some of them were

brought out to Álvaro Obregón on rafts of cedar logs which were sold there. Other rafts were made of a very light wood of no commercial value; these were broken up at Tenosique and the monuments loaded on a river steamer.

As some of these monuments, even halves of them, weigh upwards of 3 tons, their boxing and transportation was no easy task. But much mahogany lumbering is done in this region, and workmen accustomed to handling and moving great weights are available. For the same reason lumber for making the large boxes was abundant, from mahogany and cedar logs which had been felled but never rolled into the river. Our carpenter levered these up on a stage and sawed them into planks for the boxes. The loading in the boxes and onto the wagons was done mainly by man power, with simple block and



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

LINTEL 3.

This lintel, recently discovered at the Piedras Negras excavations, pictures a Maya ceremony.

tackle and ropes. Some of the monuments had to be excavated a second time at the end of the road, for, between the time that they were taken from the wagons there and the time they were placed on the rafts, they had been covered by many feet of flood water which buried them under several feet of silt.

Although when Piedras Negras was a populated city most of the surrounding country must have been cleared and cultivated, at present it is a dense forest; the nearest town is Tenosique, and from there for many days' journey up the river there is practically no population. Most of our workmen came from Tenosique. There in our pleasant camp by the river we lived very comfortably, hardly realizing what an oasis in a deserted country it is. Calamity nearly overtook us in 1932, however, when a fire destroyed many of the buildings of the camp, including much equipment, personal effects,

and specimens. The most indispensable tools and instruments, however, were in use at the time, and the storehouse with the food was saved, so that, with a few local purchases, we were able to carry on under difficulties.

The denseness of the tropical forest explains why Piedras Negras was not discovered until 1895. When the city, for some unknown reason, was abandoned, and the stucco covering of the temples disintegrated, great trees took root in the roofs, and tore the buildings apart. After many centuries of such disintegration the terraced pyramids with their stucco facings and their crowning temples were



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

A RESTORED THRONE.

An interesting discovery at Piedras Negras was a throne closely resembling that pictured on lintel 3.

reduced to high mounds of earth and stone which, in this rolling country, are hardly distinguishable from natural hills. The largest free-standing pyramid is about 63 feet high. Only one building retains high walls and a roofed chamber; for the rest, mere traces of walls appearing above the soil betray the artificial nature of the mounds.

In 1895 the ruins were shown by Emiliano Palma, now retired and living in Tenosique, but then an enterprising young lumberman, to that great Maya explorer, Teobert Maler. Sr. Palma had established a lumber camp at this site, had named it Piedras Negras on account of the black stones in the river, and had found some of the monuments.

These were erected at five-year intervals and bear dates carved in hieroglyphs which show the date of their erection. Maler worked there for several months on several different visits and published in 1901 a report on his work.¹ This work at once attracted great attention, for archeologists and artists realized from his photographic plates that at this heretofore unknown site existed probably the finest of all Maya artistic sculptures.

Of the sixteen major sculptures exported, seven of the eight sent to Guatemala and four of the eight in Philadelphia were discovered by Maler. One now in each of these cities was discovered by Dr. Morley in 1920, and three of the smaller objects in Philadelphia were discovered by the University Museum Expeditions; two of these are lintels, one a throne. These three are of especial interest.



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

BACK SCREEN OF THE THRONE.

Notwithstanding the fact that this screen and other sculptures appear to have been intentionally destroyed, enough fragments of the screen were found to permit its restoration to the extent shown above.

One of the temples was apparently built at the time of the greatest period of Maya art, for around it were placed stelae 12 to 15, four of the finest known, all now exported. Maler also found one lintel from the temple and a fragment of a second, which latter, although very small, was of such exquisite sculpture that it was considered the finest example of Maya art. Maler was so sure of the existence of a third lintel that he left a place for it in his list, numbering it lintel 3, though he did not find it. His deductions were proved correct when it was found by the First Eldridge R. Johnson Expedition. It more than fulfilled all expectations as to quality, for there is no question that it is the most admirable known piece of prehistoric American sculpture. It was broken in three large and one or more small fragments, the latter never found. As restored it is shown on page 91. The lintel is about four feet long, two feet wide, and five inches thick,

¹ Teobert Maler, *Researches in the Central Portion of the Usumatsintla River Valley*; *Memoirs of the Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology*, Harvard University; vol. II, no. 1; Cambridge, 1901.

and probably originally covered one of the doorways of the temple, face down.

The scene portrayed probably depicts a native ceremony at Piedras Negras. In the center a figure with a beautiful sweeping headdress of plumes is seated on a throne. Behind him is a semicircular jaguar robe which partially covers an ornately carved back screen. His right arm is missing, but the left hand rests on the edge of the throne over which hangs the end of his breechcloth, the textile design of which is minutely carved. The throne is supported at the front by two legs, and its lower edge is decorated with a row of tassels. Below the throne and the central figure is a row of seven seated figures in relief. The bodily proportions and the postures of these are exceedingly naturalistic and admirable. The details of the textile clothing and of physical features such as fingernails are carefully shown. Most of the figures hold some objects of uncertain nature. At least two, those directly under the throne, had ornamental headdresses, one in the form of a long-billed bird which shows against the throne; the now missing heads of these two originally stood free from the background. Above this row at the left are three standing adult figures with their arms crossed in the Maya gesture of reverence, and at the right is another group which is truly Grecian in character. Here there seem to have been four figures, two adults and two children.

Surrounding the scene, and in panels in otherwise empty spaces, are more than one hundred and fifty hieroglyphs. Unfortunately most of these are unreadable in the present state of our knowledge, but among them are six dates. Maya monuments are dated to the exact day, but the correlation of the Maya calendar with ours is one of the highly disputed points of Maya archeology. The date of this lintel is probably 9.16.10.0.0 in the Maya reckoning, and believed to be either A.D. 501 or 761 in ours.

The discovery of an actual throne the following year very well-comely supplemented the lintel, and proved that the scene shown in the lintel was an actual ceremony and not, as some specialists believed, a mythical or symbolic scene. It also proved another theory of ours, that the monuments were intentionally destroyed, probably by enemies. For even though natural forces might account for the almost complete destruction of the buildings (although those at the nearby sites of Palenque and Yaxchilán are much better preserved), it is doubtful if they could account for the fall of all the stelae, the breaking of most of them, and the mutilation of all the faces. This throne stood in a niche in a building which, if it had collapsed, would have buried all the fragments in the débris. But they were scattered around, even down the steps of the pyramid, and many fragments

were never found; enough were recovered, however, to permit a restoration of the throne, and this may be seen on page 92, with a larger view of the back screen on page 93. It should be compared with the lintel, which shows such a throne in use.

The throne consists of a thick flat rectangular seat which was supported by two legs at the front and rested on a ledge at the rear. The front and sides of the legs and the front of the bench are covered with hieroglyphs. At the back of the bench is a carved stone screen which is the feature of greatest interest. A comparison with the screen represented on the lintel will show that many of the details are similar, and evidently the same pattern was common to both. The two embrasures in which the human busts stand free, although in rather a relief technique and style, are unusual and interesting since, in the



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

LINTEL 12 AS RESTORED.

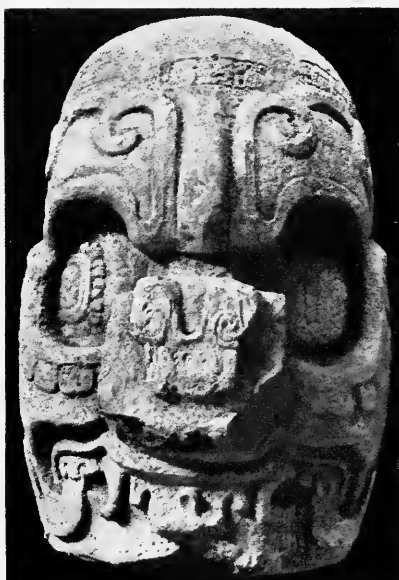
This stone, which was covered with a coat of plaster when found, bears the oldest date yet deciphered at Piedras Negras.

representation on the lintel, at the edge of the jaguar robe may be seen two deep indentations which evidently represent similar features. The proportions and details are somewhat different, however, and the throne represented on the lintel cannot be the same as this original, which is dated twenty-five years later than the lintel.

The other lintel in the University Museum, which we have numbered lintel 12, is of especial interest because of its age and the remarkable conditions of its discovery. It contains the oldest date so far found at Piedras Negras, which date, matched by another at Yaxchilan, is also the oldest known in the Usumacinta River Valley. This is, in the Maya calendar, 9.4.0.0.0, either A.D. 254 or 514.

In excavating the temple in which stood lintel 3 the bases of the walls were found, the upper parts having fallen and filled the rooms

with débris. One stone used in the building of one of the walls and still in place attracted the attention of my assistant, Mr. Satterthwaite—later director of the Third Eldridge R. Johnson Middle American Expedition in 1933—as it was larger and evidently well shaped, whereas the others were ruder. At his suggestion it was pried out of the wall. To our disappointment it was perfectly plain but we noticed that one of the broad flat smooth faces was covered with a coat of plaster. We got out our knives and chipped away a bit of this plaster and were rejoiced to find that it covered and concealed low relief carving. We had the stone carried to



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

MAYA HEADS.

These two smaller sculptures are interesting forms of the human head. Left: A god's head which formed an altar leg. Right: A head of stucco which has been restored.

camp where, in our spare time, we chipped away at the plaster until we had revealed the main features of the carving. But it turned out to be the right half—as one faces the specimen—of a broken lintel, and the initial series date is usually at the left margin.

Every day when climbing the pyramid to work we passed another stone which lay in the crotch of an inverted tree stump which had been tumbled down the pyramid from the excavations. I often wondered why it had been placed there, and by whom. One of my workmen afterwards told me that he had thrown it out with the débris the previous year and, as it was a larger and heavier stone than most, had watched it roll down the pyramid and bounce up

into the forked roots where it was miraculously not covered by the rest of the débris. Looking at it carefully one day we found the same smooth plastered face, and measurements revealed that it was of the same size as the broken lintel. Carrying it to camp it fitted the other fragment perfectly, and upon chipping away the plaster the date was revealed. Complete cleaning was left until the parts arrived in Philadelphia, where they were restored as seen on page 95.

This lintel shows the result of long erosion and wear. It probably was placed in an old temple which fell or was destroyed, and the lintel, either fractured in falling or intentionally broken, was then used as a building stone in the later temple.

The scene shows, on the right half, a standing figure in full panoply, and behind him one with head bent back kneeling on one knee. At the left are three figures kneeling on both knees. The sculpture is archaic and rude, and the artistic development which was made in the two and a half centuries which separated these two lintels can be readily seen. Lintel 3 marks the apogee of Maya art, but the dates on the monuments indicate that the city continued to be occupied for fifty years longer, a total dated occupation period of about three centuries.

The other smaller sculpture in the University Museum is one of the four legs of an altar. This is in the form of the head of one of the gods of the Maya pantheon. It may be seen on page 96.

Another object that was found under unusual conditions is the stucco head shown on page 96. In 1931 Dr. S. G. Morley of the Carnegie Institution was visiting the site while we were engaged in digging up the floor of one of the temples. Wishing to take a photograph, he called for a fragment of débris to make his tripod firm; a workman handed him a large piece, which turned out to be the lower part of the face of this stucco head. Further search produced the fragment with the eye. The following year the large portion with the headdress was discovered. These fragments were put together and the head restored in the Museum; the restored parts of white plaster may easily be distinguished from the darker original stucco portions. Nothing has been restored unless clearly indicated by the original. For instance it is almost certain that the head originally had large ear ornaments, but as no trace of these was found they were not replaced.

Probably this head had originally served as a part of the ornamentation of, or possibly as an idol in, another temple. When this was destroyed, the fragments were utilized as a part of the filling when the floor of this later temple was laid. Traces of red coloring may be seen on the chin and the headdress, and originally the whole head was probably thus tinted.

STELAE FROM PIEDRAS NEGRAS.

Among the stelae brought to the University Museum are these two impressive specimens. Left: Stela 40, the oldest and largest of the group, measures 13 feet 8 inches in height. Lower: Stela 13, about 6 feet in height, is a fine example of Maya sculpture.



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

Three of the four stelae in the University Museum are large and impressive as they stand in a group; the fourth is smaller. The largest, stela 40, is the oldest, dated 9.15.15.0.0, probably A.D. 746. Had it been unbroken it would have been extremely difficult to transport, since it weighs about five and a half tons. Even in two nearly equal halves the boxing and transportation was a difficult task. It originally stood about fifteen feet, eight inches in height, but about two feet of the uncarved base which was implanted in the ground were removed in order to place it in the hall. This base can be replaced if and when the monument is moved. It shows a heroic figure with a great headdress like a bishop's mitre. He is dropping grains of corn which fall upon the head of a figure at the bottom, presumed to be that of the Earth Goddess. The apparent fleur-de-lis at the left probably represent leaves of the corn plant. This is shown on page 98.

The next oldest monument, stela 13, with the date 9.17.0.0.0, probably A.D. 771, is of a like subject, a figure sowing corn. This has been much admired as "one of the finest examples of Mayan sculpture, showing a fine sense of composition and a considerable knowledge of perspective" (Spinden). The perspective is shown by the lowering of one shoulder. But the stela is much broken, eroded, and small, six feet in height. An illustration of it as mended appears on page 98.

Stela 14, figured on page 100, is one of the best known and most highly regarded examples of Maya sculpture, and probably one of the latest dated stelae at Piedras Negras. Its height is about nine feet six inches. The date is not quite certain, but seems to be 9.18.10.0.0, probably A.D. 800. It has a very oriental appearance and is termed a "Buddha figure" because the god in high relief is seated tailor fashion in the niche. The now broken mouth was apparently originally open, and the effect and technique are altogether admirable. At the base, in low relief, is a standing figure with a feather wand. It is interesting that at Piedras Negras are four of these "Buddha figures", made at different times and each accurately dated. This is probably the first time in the history of art that the same subject has been treated at exactly known intervals of time, and the degree of development in art feeling and technique in these intervals of time thus shown.

But without doubt the finest stela of all, and probably the most beautiful of all known Maya monuments, is magnificent stela 12. This was broken in four pieces but has been carefully restored in the museum, as may be seen in the illustration on page 100. It stands ten feet, four inches high, and bears the date 9.18.5.0.0, five years earlier than stela 14. It shows freedom, excellent composition, foreshortening, and technical skill. In the center, at a higher level than the other figures, is a seated figure with a great plumed headdress. The thigh is shown foreshortened, the hand resting on the knee. We may presume him



Courtesy of the University Museum, University of Pennsylvania.

TWO REMARKABLE SCULPTURES.

These stelae, now at the University Museum, are among the most unusual of those discovered at Piedras Negras. Left: Stela 14, thought to date from 800 A.D., has one of the "Buddha" figures which appear on four sculptures. Right: Stela 12, slightly more than 10 feet in height, is the finest Maya monument yet discovered.

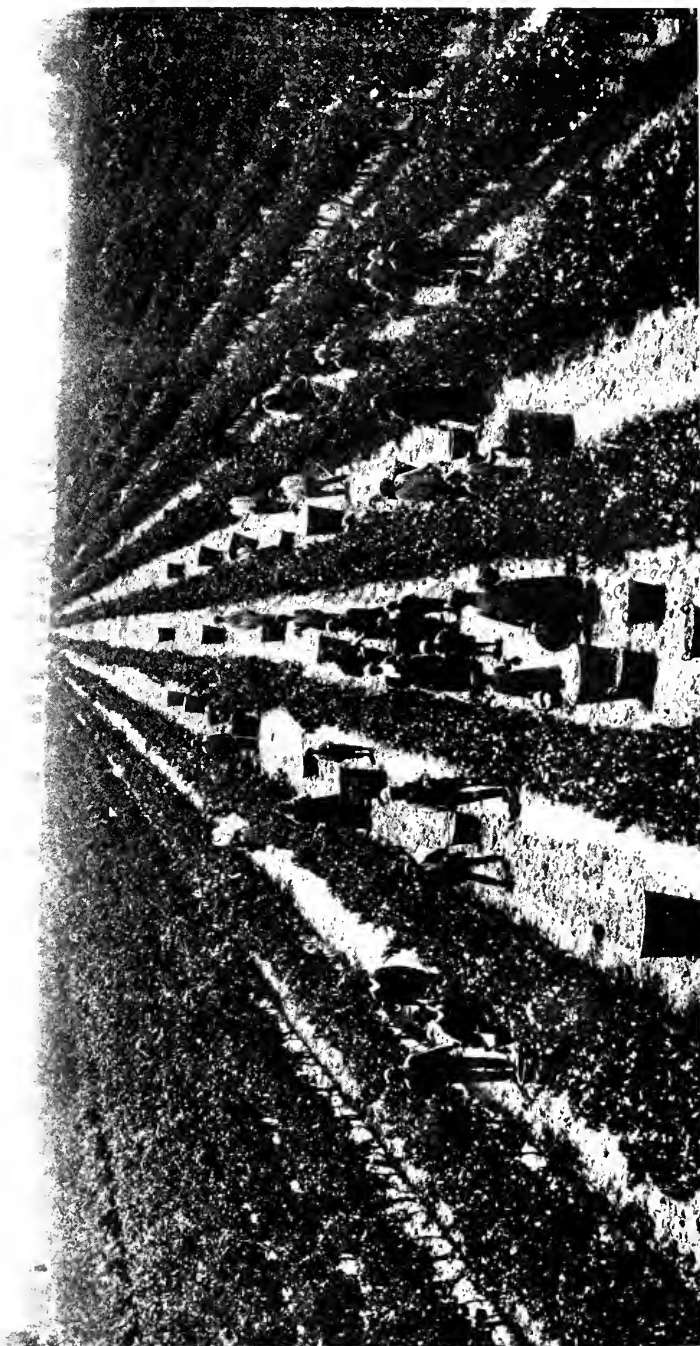
to be the ruler of Piedras Negras. At either side is a standing figure, probably a priest. Below him is a seated figure gazing upwards, probably in supplication. He wears his necklace and ear ornaments and may be presumed to be a chief of a vanquished group, received with the honors of war, beseeching mercy. At the bottom are eight figures of men. There can be no doubt concerning these. They are bound with rope and their ear ornaments have been torn out, probably as a sign of degradation. They are captives and possibly destined for sacrifice, for one other sculpture shows us that this rite was performed at Piedras Negras, though it probably had not reached the hecatombic degree that it did among the later Aztecs. Most of these figures are gazing upward in supplication, but the one at the far right has lost hope and is dejected; he has played the game and lost, and realizes it. Altogether it is a beautiful piece of sculpture.

All these sculptures are the more remarkable when it is realized that they were carved without the use of any metal implements. Probably hard stones such as diorite, flint, and jade, abrasives such as sand, and endless time and patience were alone employed in their manufacture.

There are many other stelae at Piedras Negras which are well preserved and worthy of exportation, but the University Museum Expeditions are not planning to remove any more. The Third Expedition in 1933 removed none, devoting attention to more scientific matters. These are too technical to be mentioned here but are of great importance. Small objects of archeological or artistic merit, however, are constantly being found and many of these are displayed in the Maya Hall of the University Museum. Under the floors of the temples are encountered many caches of ceremonial objects of flint, obsidian, shell, bone, and similar materials, including many of the peculiar so-called "eccentric" flints. These are pieces of flint flaked in many peculiar and artistic shapes. Not a piece of metal of any kind has been found.

Most notable was the discovery of a grave of an important personage with his personal ornaments, including the largest known mirror of pyrite mosaic, ten inches in diameter, jade ornaments with carved hieroglyphs, and many small plaques of shell, four of which have incised hieroglyphs on the reverse face.

It is hoped that the expedition will return to Piedras Negras early in 1934 for a fourth season of work and that excavations will continue there for some years to come, since to date only a small part of the city has been completely excavated. But funds for such research are difficult to secure in these times of economic crisis, and the future of the work is not yet assured.



AN ARGENTINE VINEYARD.

While the grape has been cultivated in Argentina since the early days of the Spanish settlers, not until the past 40 years has there been a great development of the industry. The area planted in Mendoza Province alone increased from about 16,000 acres in 1889 to 226,427 in 1932.

THE WINE INDUSTRY OF ARGENTINA¹

ONE of the most important Argentine industries is that of wine-growing. The nation ranks high in the list of wine-producing countries of the world,² and the value of the wine produced, calculated on wholesale prices, has reached in recent years 150,000,000 paper pesos, and in more prosperous times has exceeded 200,000,000 paper pesos. (The Argentine paper peso is worth at par \$0.424 U.S. cy.)

The economic life of two important provinces, Mendoza and San Juan, which together make up what is known as the Cuyo region, depends almost entirely upon this industry, and they have produced the greater part of Argentine wine. Of the former Province, a writer in the *Review of the River Plate* for May 16, 1924, said:

"The Cordillera de los Andes is often spoken of as 'The Spinal Column of America.' The waters which the Cordillera supplies to the northwestern portion of the Province of Mendoza unquestionably constitute the backbone of Mendoza's prosperity. The total area of the Province is . . . 167,000 square kilometers [63,460 square miles]. Centuries ago the greater part of this area was barren—a veritable desert, the surface of which was veiled only by the ugly growth of hardy bushes. The climate is dry and owing to the lack of rainfall the greater part of the Province forms part of Argentina's arid zone. . . .

"The first attempts at irrigation in the region now known as the Province of Mendoza have been traced back to a very remote period. . . . During the colonial period, the work was carried on by the Spaniards. . . .

"In 1880 the Government undertook to extend the irrigation works and it was as a result of this enterprise that agriculture in Mendoza began, at last, to gain a firm foothold. The first irrigation law was passed in 1881 and since then the irrigation works have been steadily improved and the system of control perfected. . . .

"The appearance of the grapevine in South America dates back to the most remote period of the Spanish conquest. The Spaniards planted vines in Peru and some time later vines were seen growing in certain parts of Chile. In the sixteenth century the Jesuits, who had

¹ This article is based in the main on a report on wine growing and manufacture in Argentina which appeared in the September 1933 issue of the "Revista Económica", published by the Banco de la Nación Argentina, Buenos Aires. In addition to the sources mentioned in the article, the "Boletín Agrícola" (September and October 1933), issued by the Ministry of Industries and Public Works of the Province of Mendoza, and the "Revista de Economía Argentina", January to April 1930, inclusive, were also consulted.

² According to figures published by "The International Yearbook of Agricultural Statistics 1931-32" (Rome 1932), Argentina ranked 5th in 1928, 6th in 1927 and 1929, 7th in 1930, and 10th in 1931.

crossed the Andes from Chile into what is now Argentine territory, planted vines in Mendoza, San Juan, Córdoba, Jujuy, La Rioja, Salta, and Catamarca. These vines were all of the same variety and this variety continued in evidence for nearly three centuries, at the end of which period new varieties began to be imported from Chile and Europe. After Argentina became an independent nation, several French varieties, of which Malbeck was the first, were brought over from their country of origin. The Cabernet, Semillon, Pinot, and Sauvignon varieties followed in rapid succession and at the present time these varieties compose 90 percent of the vines of Mendoza. The first vines of the Malbeck variety were planted by Don Carlos González in 1861. . . .

"In 1885, the 358 kilometers [222 miles] of railway line running from Villa Mercedes, in San Luis, to Mendoza, were completed and it was then that the wine-making industry of the Province of Mendoza entered upon a new lease of life. The throbbing of the first locomotive to drag a carriage load of passengers into Mendoza set the economic heart of the Province throbbing in unison."

In the years 1899-1903, 75 percent of all wine manufactured in the country came from Mendoza and 19 percent from San Juan. In the period 1929-33, 92 percent of the domestic wines was produced in the same two provinces, although the proportions had changed slightly—to 70 and 22 percent respectively. Wine-making also plays a part in the economy of Río Negro, and the same is true, although to a smaller degree, of Jujuy, La Rioja, Catamarca, and other provinces.

Favored by good soil, excellent climate, and available irrigation, the wine industry, protected by the tariff, developed rapidly to the point where it was able to supply all the ordinary table wine to meet the domestic demand. Imports were thus reduced, although consumption was increasing. The manufacture of wine increased from 37,539,000 gallons in 1899 to 112,543,000 in 1912; 9 years later it had risen to 162,502,000 gallons, and reached its peak in 1929 with 221,065,000 gallons.

The steady expansion of the industry brought about the planting of more vineyards and the establishment of new wine cellars. But as it developed faster than the population, and the consumption of wine per capita decreased, the industry is at present feeling the effects. Because of the disparity between production and consumption, there has recently been a great increase in the stocks stored in wine cellars, prices for grapes and wine have fallen, and real estate values of vineyards have declined.

The consumption of wine followed a rising curve until 1913; this was due largely to the fact that the preceding period was one of extraordinary national development. Private wealth increased greatly and with it the capacity of the market to absorb all kinds of merchandise.



THE NATIONAL SCHOOL OF VITICULTURE, MENDOZA, ARGENTINA.

The School of Viticulture, an outstanding experimental station, is located at Mendoza, just east of the Andes, in the heart of the grape region of the country. Upper: A corner of a vineyard at the school. Lower: The conservatory.

Moreover, immigration was large, and most of the immigrants—coming chiefly from Spain, Italy, and France, all wine-drinking countries—were adults, with a preponderance of men. But beginning with 1913 the per capita consumption began to decrease. This fact cannot be entirely ascribed to the lack of immigration during the war years, for after the current of immigration had once more began to flow to Argentine shores, consumption did not increase correspondingly. Higher prices, due to heavier taxation, probably had some effect, but more important were the change in type of the immigrant and the evolution in the tastes of the consumer, which increased the popularity of other drinks than wine.

The following table, giving the production, imports, exports, and consumption of wine in Argentina for specified years from 1914 to 1933, illustrates this trend:

Year	Production	Imports	Exports ¹	Consumption			
				Domestic wine	Imported wine	Total	Per capita ²
	<i>Thousands of gallons</i>	<i>Thousands of gallons</i>	<i>Thousands of gallons</i>	<i>Thousands of gallons</i>	<i>Thousands of gallons</i>	<i>Thousands of gallons</i>	<i>Gallons</i>
1914	136,070	7,383	55	105,669	7,383	113,052	15.1
1919	120,854	1,054	2,524	144,783	1,054	145,837	17.4
1924	144,308	1,201	449	162,030	1,201	163,232	17.1
1929	221,065	1,224	133	166,655	1,224	167,878	15.3
1930	151,479	1,172	144	146,420	1,172	147,593	13.2
1931	147,550	719	154	136,764	719	137,483	12.0
1932	57,765	330	71	108,418	330	108,748	9.3
1933 ³	176,996	291	32	103,027	264	103,292	8.7

¹ Table wine. The figures for bottled wines have been calculated on the basis of $\frac{1}{2}$ gallons.

² Estimated according to the population at the beginning of each year.

³ Estimated.

More complete data are available for wine growing in Mendoza than elsewhere. A brief study of conditions there may be considered indicative of the industry as a whole.

Although, as has been said, wine growing in the Province dates from the Conquest, the great development of the industry has come within the last 40 years. In 1889, for example, only 15,797 acres were planted to vineyards, while 6 years later the acreage had doubled. Ten years after that there were 58,220 acres; in 1910, 110,510; in 1915, 140,635; and at the end of 1932, 226,427.

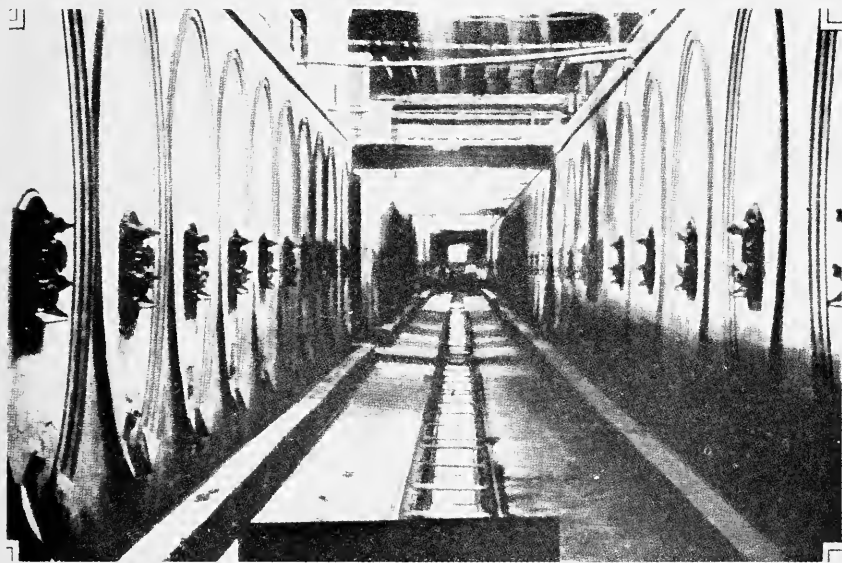
The yield of grapes per acre has varied with both weather and economic conditions; in 1920, 1927, and 1932 heavy frosts caused a reduced crop, while in 1918, 1919, 1930, and 1931, the harvest was small because quantities of grapes were deliberately left on the vine.

The production of wine in the Province, which is intimately allied with the harvest, has kept pace with the increase of land under cultivation. Thus, the 39,441,000 gallons elaborated in 1899–1903 rose rapidly to 113,858,000 in 1914. Then came 5 years of controlled production, followed by others in which the weather prevented a

normal output. Nevertheless, in spite of the low figures of certain years, it is possible to see the growth of industrial capacity, which reached its peak in 1929 with 166,245,000 gallons.

The rapid development of the industry in Mendoza was caused, no doubt, by the enormous profits made in certain periods. The increase was, however, entirely uncontrolled, and since the beginning of this century the industry there has undergone three crises.

The first was in 1901; according to the report of a special investigation commission by the National Government, it was caused by poor quality and the manufacture of synthetic products. One result of the investigation was a national law, passed in 1904 and still in



AN ARGENTINE WINE CELLAR.

The larger wineries have modern vaults for the storage of such quantities of the annual production of wine as may be necessary. It has been estimated that 176,996,000 gallons were produced during the past year.

effect, covering the technical aspects of the wine industry. This measure and decreased taxes helped the industry to recover to such a degree that the increase in vineyard plantings and speculation in land both reached their peak in 1912.

The second crisis began in 1913. The price of grapes was in that year less than half, and in 1914 little more than a third, of what it had been in 1912.

The government of the province felt that the best solution for such a state of affairs was a new tax, the proceeds from which should be used to buy wines for export abroad, ship grapes and wine to other parts of the country, and finance similar projects. This and other measures, however, could not be carried out for lack of funds.

Notwithstanding the wine that was thrown away and the grapes that were destroyed, the depression persisted. The Compañía Vitivinícola de Mendoza (Mendoza Wine-Growers Co.), generally known simply as the Cooperative, was formed in 1917 as a semiofficial organization to control the buying, selling, and export of wine and grapes. The artificial maintenance of a price level did not help matters, and when the company was declared unconstitutional and dissolved, it had served only to add to the confused state of affairs.

The second crisis ended in 1919, however, because consumption temporarily increased and frosts in 1920 kept the supply low. The era of prosperity continued until 1928, since increased production was accompanied by a growing population. But as before, prosperity was the signal for unrestrained expansion, and only the severe frost of 1927 staved off the inevitable collapse for 2 years. The harvests of the 2 following years were banner ones, and the supply far exceeded the demand. Another crisis had occurred, and the situation was further complicated by the world-wide economic difficulties.

Among the numerous solutions proposed, the one adopted was the formation of a Sociedad Vitivinícola in Mendoza on the basis of a so-called "emergency plan", for the purpose of retiring from the market a large proportion of the excess stock, limiting production, and raising prices. But the fact was forgotten that a rise in prices, in times of economic stress, usually means lessened consumption, and the society's efforts at stabilization were unsuccessful. The event which saved the situation was the heavy frost of 1931, which did more than the society to decrease production and raise prices.

The most serious phase in the problem, and the one whose solution will do more than anything else to relieve the situation, is underconsumption. The aspects of that side of the question were analyzed by the noted economist Alejandro Bunge and published in the *Revista de Economía Argentina* for the months January to April 1930, inclusive, in a report which has been the basis for all subsequent studies. This decrease in consumption causes the greatest harm to Mendoza, San Juan, and Río Negro, the three zones which market their products outside their own borders. Their stock on hand is large, and the next harvest promises to be excellent; if nothing should prevent its reaching production capacity, it would be necessary to double the present rate of consumption in order to absorb the amount of wine manufactured.

Many solutions are being brought forward as remedies for the situation in which the industry now finds itself. Plans for other utilization of grapes and grape products have been suggested; they include the manufacture of industrial alcohol, the utilization of the juice of green grapes, the exportation of grapes and of wine to foreign countries, and the manufacture of brandy and of wine vinegar.

But it is also considered essential to reduce taxes on both production and consumption, and to obtain lower transportation rates.

One of the latest developments was the holding of a Wine Growing Conference in Mendoza early in October. It was called at the instance of the Chief Executive of the Province, who by a decree dated September 4, 1933, appointed an organizing committee, under the chairmanship of the provincial Director of Industry, to draw up a program and convoke the conference, to which all unions, organizations, and experts qualified to study and express the common aims of the industry were to be invited. According to the decree, the resolutions passed were to be recommendations to the Executive of the Province. After a study of all aspects of the industry, the conference centered its recommendations on two points—that measures be taken for increasing the consumption of wine, and that the entire current crop be utilized.





THE USPALLATA PASS.

Through the pass traversed by San Martin's troops a century ago, regular air service is now maintained between Argentina and Chile.

“JUMPING THE HILL”

By CAMERON ROGERS

Editor, “The Grace Log”

UNTIL 1929 the Andes composed a barrier to travel from 18,000 to 23,000 feet high between the great Republics of Chile and Argentina. The Transandine railroad alone afforded transportation from seaboard to seaboard and this train journey was, is, and will always be a chancy business during the winter months of June, July, and August when the Andine snows, eternal always, increase a hundredfold and move down to block the climbing rails. But in 1929 Pan American-Grace Airways, flinging its system south from Panama the length of South America's west coast, established the terminus to its longitudinal development at Los Cerrillos airport in Santiago de Chile and turned eastward to serve Argentina and Uruguay, perforce via the colossal Andine spine.

An undertaking considered by the layman 5 short years ago to be extremely hazardous at best and at anything less a fatal and altogether suicidal affair, was triumphantly realized in the latter months of 1929. Carrying, at first, mail only, Panagra trimotored Fords took off once weekly from Los Cerrillos, climbed to an altitude of 18,000 feet and, passing over Los Andes and the Chilean entrance to the Transandine railroad's tunnel, threaded the Uspallata Pass and emerged from the thronging peaks of one of the greatest mountain chains in the world to land at Mendoza, Argentina. From Mendoza to Buenos Aires it was, of course, plain sailing and from Buenos Aires to Montevideo across the Río de la Plata no great matter to pilots inured to the rigors of high flying over a portion of the earth's crust so jagged as to discourage any eye but a condor's.

No pilot of experience and ability ever minimizes the risk of flying over any sort of country, and it were ridiculous to say that “jumping the hill”, as the hangar phrase goes, is without its hazards. Men flying at 18,000 feet or more for three quarters of an hour over the mighty cordillera have plenty to think about, including gales roaring eternally in air more often shadowed than not, pitiless ground currents begotten by these gales, and those clouds which gather in the Uspallata Pass to torment flight superintendents and ground crews if not the pilots themselves. The Uspallata, over which troops of the illustrious San Martín marched to the liberation of Chile over a century ago, is one of the only two such breaks in the Andes within

many miles of Chile's capital. The other is Maipo, forbidden non-Chilean pilots for reasons of military intelligence. The Uspallata is about 16,000 feet high and when clear may be negotiated at an altitude well within the ceiling capacity of Panagra planes. In 1929, before the Andine route was equipped with posts for trained weather observers, it was a difficult matter sometimes to know precisely what conditions existed in the cordillera. That in spite of this Panagra (short for Pan American-Grace) operated planes at first once and then twice weekly between Chile and Argentina without untoward incident is a high tribute to the company's operating skill. Early in 1930 the expected permit to carry passengers was received and since that



Reproduced by permission from Robert Gerstmann's "Chile."

LOS ANDES, CHILE.

Shortly after passing over the green fields at Los Andes the plane rises higher preparatory to "jumping the hill."

time this traffic has grown steadily and still grows, so that bookings must sometimes be made weeks ahead. Passengers today are, within reasonable interpretation of the word, secure, as secure as they can be anywhere except in bed under a good roof in an area not subject to earthquakes, but in those early days their security depended not on perfected ground appliances for the exact computation of any possible risk but on the ability, sometimes brilliant and always noteworthy, of their pilots.

Today, observers stationed at regular intervals beneath that extraordinary skyway transmit by a directly connected land wire to radio stations at Santiago and Mendoza every weather indication and condition so that all pilots know these as they know the instruments



Courtesy of Pan American Airways.

A PASSENGER PLANE OVER THE ANDES.

Formerly an extremely adventuresome undertaking, crossing the Andes by air is now an increasingly popular mode of travel between Argentina and Chile.

in the cockpits of their planes. No speculation enters now into the business of “jumping the hill.” It has been and is being done by hundreds all the time and, somewhat to the regret of those who spanned the Andes in that memorable summer of 1929, to have done so now carries with it no great distinction.

One cannot forget, however, that group of pilots, all young, to whose courage and ability was entrusted the establishment of Panagra’s most spectacular sector before this became no more extraordinary than a simple hop between Trujillo and Lima. Red Williams was one, Red whose observations on life in high altitudes were wont hilariously to divert perfect strangers in the Savoy-Anexo, not to speak of friends who deprecated his tales of lakes at angles of 45° , water not falling, but streaming upward, and pink ducks. Yet when we flew the eastward run, the trip which added Uruguay to the schedule, who of us present in the cold air that day will forget Red’s triumphant indication of a glacier thousands of feet below us, a waterfall the spray of which plumed upward in the perpetual gale, and later, over the Argentine pampa, flamingoes in undulant rosy flight? Cliff Travis, now as always active in South American skies, though unhappily for some of his friends not with Panagra, was another; Cliff whose handsome but impassive features only lightened when news from Mendoza or Santiago betokened clouds in the

Uspallata and whose skill at Capitán Manda smote many a Chilean and Argentine colleague into gloomy astonishment. And another was Charley Robinson, Robbie whose skill was known wherever commercial aviation flourished, for a time Panagra's flight superintendent in Lima, then in Santiago, and tragically, the only Panagra pilot ever lost jumping the hill. As a passenger, with Red I flew the Andes, with Cliff from La Paz to Arica on the coast and on to Santiago, and with Robbie from Trujillo to Lima one afternoon when the big trimotor shook not only to the thundering diapason of the motors but to the snores of seven wedding guests homeward bound from



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TWO ANDINE LAKES.

From an altitude of 15,000 feet, the air traveler looks down on glacial lakes between the rugged peaks of the cordillera.

festivities at Casa Grande. And finally there was, and still is, John D. MacGregor, vice president and general manager of Panagra in New York, a man of mature years, who in despite of them surveyed his company's entire route in person and with Red pioneered the Andine traverse. Mac actually was the first to jump the hill for North American commercial aviation as represented today by Panagra, but when I first met him in Bolivia's capital on his way back to the United States shortly after this experience he mentioned it only in passing as an interesting but sometimes chilly little hop.

And now it's not even a chilly little hop because the planes are heated.

CHILE'S WINE INDUSTRY

By CARLOS DE LA BARRA

Commercial Secretary, Embassy of Chile to the United States

CHILEAN wines have always been greatly esteemed in Europe, and are imported into that part of the world in annually increasing quantities. The United States imported no Chilean wines before the adoption of the Eighteenth Amendment but, due to their rich flavor and fine bouquet, it is believed that they will find a ready market here. Viticulture is one of Chile's most important agricultural industries from the standpoint not only of capital invested but also of the high quality of its product, which can be favorably compared with the best types of European wines.

Father Francisco de Caravantes was the first to introduce the vine into Chile shortly after the discovery of America. Because the production of wine in South America injured the trade of Spanish producers, who considered that it curtailed their exports, a royal decree was issued prohibiting the cultivation of vines in the colonies.

By 1551 there were several sizable vineyards around Santiago, Concepción, and La Serena. The vines grew rapidly, no doubt because of the favorable climatic conditions and the suitability of the soil, and Chilean wines soon began making serious inroads in the market previously enjoyed exclusively by the Spanish producers. It soon became impossible to enforce the above-mentioned decree and a sales tax was adopted to replace it. Despite this tax Chilean wine was sold for 18 cents American money per Spanish arroba (approximately 10 gallons).

In 1831 there were more than twenty million vines in Chile. Twenty years later a very illustrious and progressive Chilean, Don Silvestre Ochagavia, introduced several French varieties which thrived very well. With the assistance of Monsieur Belgrand, a famous French expert, and Señor Ochagavia the industry made rapid strides toward its present splendid position. Previous to this the only variety grown in Chile was a small black grape known as *cepa chilena*, which is believed to have been introduced from either the Spanish peninsula or the Canary Islands.

Prices by that time were more remunerative, and for the first time wine was marketed in bottles, the price being 5 cents American money for three quarters of a quart. Wine in barrels brought 50 cents an arroba.

The first export of Chilean wines was made in 1857, when small quantities were shipped to the countries along the Pacific coast. The total exports during the years 1857 to 1865 did not reach \$20,000. At this time a certain amount of Chilean wines reached California, introduced there by the Chileans who had gone in search of gold. Since then they have won favor in European markets, especially in Belgium, Germany, and France.

In 1930 there were 209,950 acres of vines under active cultivation in Chile; 190,338 acres were devoted to wine grapes and 19,612 acres to the production of table grapes, raisins, etc. The capital invested in the industry is about \$135,000,000 and it furnishes employment to about 200,000 men.

The vineyards are now in full bearing; 32 percent of the acreage is irrigated and 68 percent unirrigated. The total acreage of the vineyards and their production in 1930 was divided as follows:

Provinces:	<i>Acres under cultivation</i>	<i>Wine production (in thousand gallons)</i>
Aconcagua	4, 204	2, 383
Valparaíso	4, 775	792
Santiago	11, 397	7, 330
O'Higgins	6, 820	5, 344
Colchagua	9, 556	10, 070
Curicó	6, 923	5, 803
Talca	19, 950	15, 533
Maule	25, 730	7, 679
Linares	12, 681	13, 490
Ñuble	19, 950	9, 203
Concepción	40, 525	7, 059
Bío Bío	21, 311	2, 487
Other Provinces	6, 516	1, 150
Total	190, 338	88, 323

The provinces of Talca, Curicó, Linares, and Colchagua produce wines justly famous throughout the world. They are made from choice varieties of grapes imported from the Bordeaux region in France. Chile's unsurpassed climatic and soil conditions have been extremely suitable to the cultivation of these vines. In the manufacture of red wines the predominant varieties are Cabernet, Merlot, and Cot, whereas in that of white wine the favorites are Muscatel and Semillon.

The production of wines in the last ten years has been as follows:

Production of wines in Chile (in thousands of gallons)

1923	106, 082	1929	86, 595
1924	88, 101	1930	88, 323
1925	92, 193	1931	64, 057
1926	76, 222	1932	61, 161
1927	81, 496	1933 (estimate)	83, 214
1928	92, 437		



Courtesy of R. Henry Norweb.

HARVESTING GRAPES.

The high standard of Chilean grapes and wines is partly due to the constant governmental supervision given the industry. Upper: Gathering choice bunches of table grapes, many of which find their way to foreign markets. Lower: Loading a flat car for the winery.



Courtesy of R. Henry Norweb.

A PARTIAL VIEW OF A CHILEAN VINEYARD.

More than 200,000 acres in the fertile valleys between the coast range and the Andes are devoted to grape culture.

In 1930 Chile exported the following quantities of wine: To Germany, 354,581 gals.; Argentina, 33,719 gals.; Belgium, 735,061 gals.; Ecuador, 54,295 gals.; France, 99,179 gals.; Holland, 72,278 gals.; Paraguay, 31,080 gals.; Switzerland, 58,658 gals.; other countries, 71,480 gals.; total, 1,510,331 gallons.

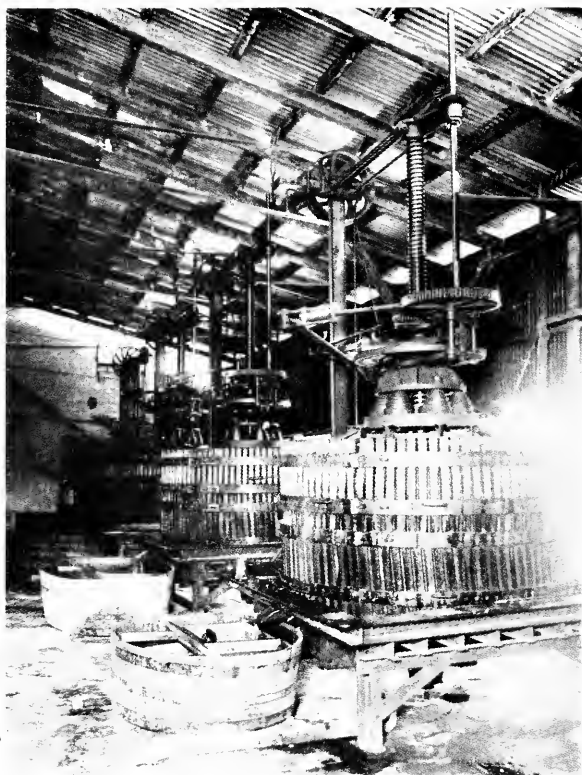
According to the foregoing statistics, it will be seen that in recent years the principal markets for Chilean wines have been European countries, since nearly 80 percent of the wines exported has been shipped to that continent. In the last 2 years these exportations have increased considerably.

At the present time the Chilean wine industry is on a very high plane. There are magnificent vineyards and the most up-to-date equipment is used in the manufacture of the wines, which is in charge of experienced and competent technical men.

The high standard of Chilean wines is in no small measure due to the earnest efforts of the Government constantly to improve the varieties of grapes cultivated, restricting them to the choicest types, and rigidly supervising production to insure quality. One of the most important means of carrying out this purpose was the establishment of the Viticulture Service Bureau of the Department of Agriculture. This bureau devotes itself to research and to educating the

A CHILEAN WINERY.

The production of wine for the year 1933 has been estimated at 83,000,000 gallons. Right: Some of the presses in one of the leading wineries near Santiago. Lower: A storage room.



Courtesy of R. Henry Norweb.



Courtesy of R. Henry Norweb.

TRUCKS LOADED WITH WINE.

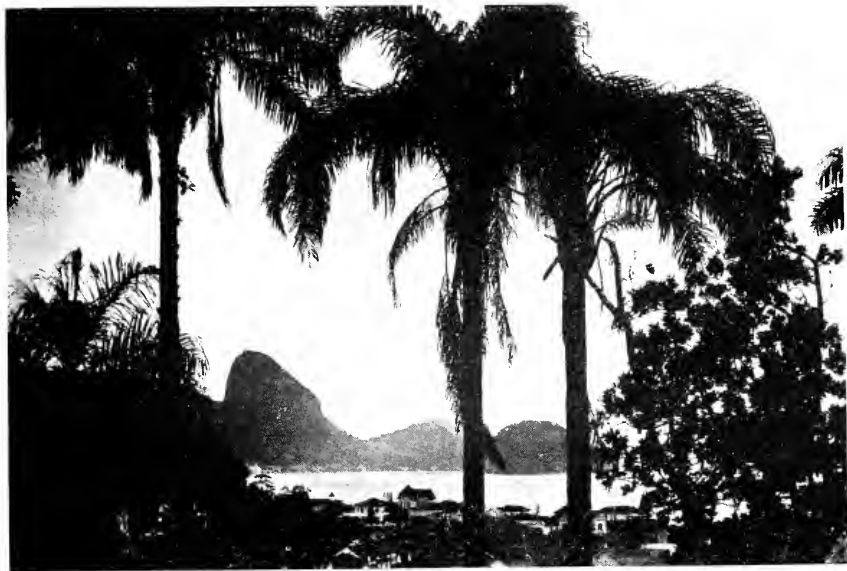
While long popular in other markets, the first consignment of Chilean wine to reach the United States after the repeal of the eighteenth amendment was a shipment of 3,146 cases which arrived in Los Angeles in December 1933.

wine producers in the proper methods of cultivating their vineyards and manufacturing wines, and serves to promote in every possible way this very important Chilean industry. It takes care of technical and commercial consultations, provides new plants and advises as to the latest methods used in the manufacture of wines and the cultivation of vineyards. Chilean vines are free from disease and insects.

Chile has adopted strict measures to protect the quality of her wines, and those which are exported at the present time are thoroughly standardized. An institution known as the Board of Control supervises all exports and permits only the highest quality of wines to be shipped abroad. This Board of Control has offices at all the principal ports.

Chile's wines are today justly famous, for in less than a century, starting in the home market, gradually invading the rest of Latin America and finally meeting with approval in Europe, they have won for themselves an enviable reputation and awards at the Buffalo, Paris, Chicago, and other great international expositions.

ALONG THE ROUTE OF SECRETARY HULL IN SOUTH AMERICA



RIO DE JANEIRO.

En route to the Seventh International Conference of American States, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and chairman of the delegation, visited the capital of Brazil, situated on the most beautiful harbor in the world.



MONTEVIDEO.

Following the adjournment of the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met in Montevideo in December, the Secretary of State began his tour around South America.

ALONG THE ROUTE OF SECRETARY



Courtesy of the Munson Steamship Lines.

THE CAPITOL, BUENOS AIRES.

The monument in the plaza commemorates the first two congresses of Argentina; that which met in Buenos Aires in 1810 following the declaration of independence and the Congress of Tucumán in 1816.



LAKE NAHUEL HUAPI, ARGENTINA.

From Bariloche, at the southeastern extremity of the lake, Secretary of State Hull began on January 1 his trip through the picturesque lake region of southern Argentina and Chile, often called "the Switzerland of America."

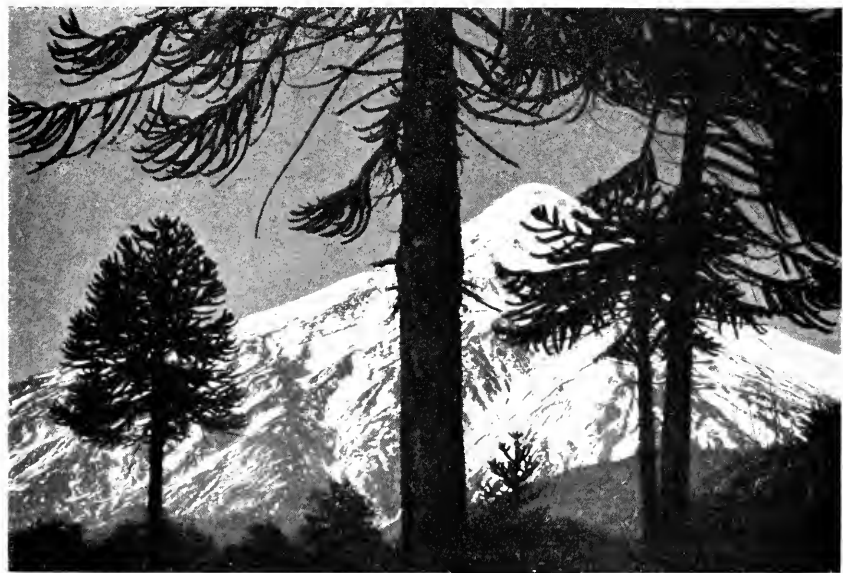
HULL IN SOUTH AMERICA



Reproduced by permission from Robert Gerstmann's "Chile."

LAKE TODOS LOS SANTOS AND MT. OSORNO.

The symmetrical snow-capped cone of Osorno is visible from the Chilean lakes of Todos los Santos and Llanquihue.



Reproduced by permission from Robert Gerstmann's "Chile."

LANÍN VOLCANO.

This extinct volcano on the Argentine-Chilean border glistens through a screen of araucarias evergreens which add greatly to the beauty of the southern regions.

ALONG THE ROUTE OF SECRETARY



LA MONEDA, SANTIAGO, CHILE.

The presidential palace owes its name to the fact that it is the building erected in 1786-1805 to house the Chilean mint. Here President Alessandri of Chile was host at a banquet to Secretary Hull during the latter's visit to Santiago.



THE DINING ROOM OF THE GOVERNMENT PALACE, LIMA.

The handsome state banquet hall of the Government Palace was the scene of another entertainment in honor of the Secretary of State.

HULL IN SOUTH AMERICA



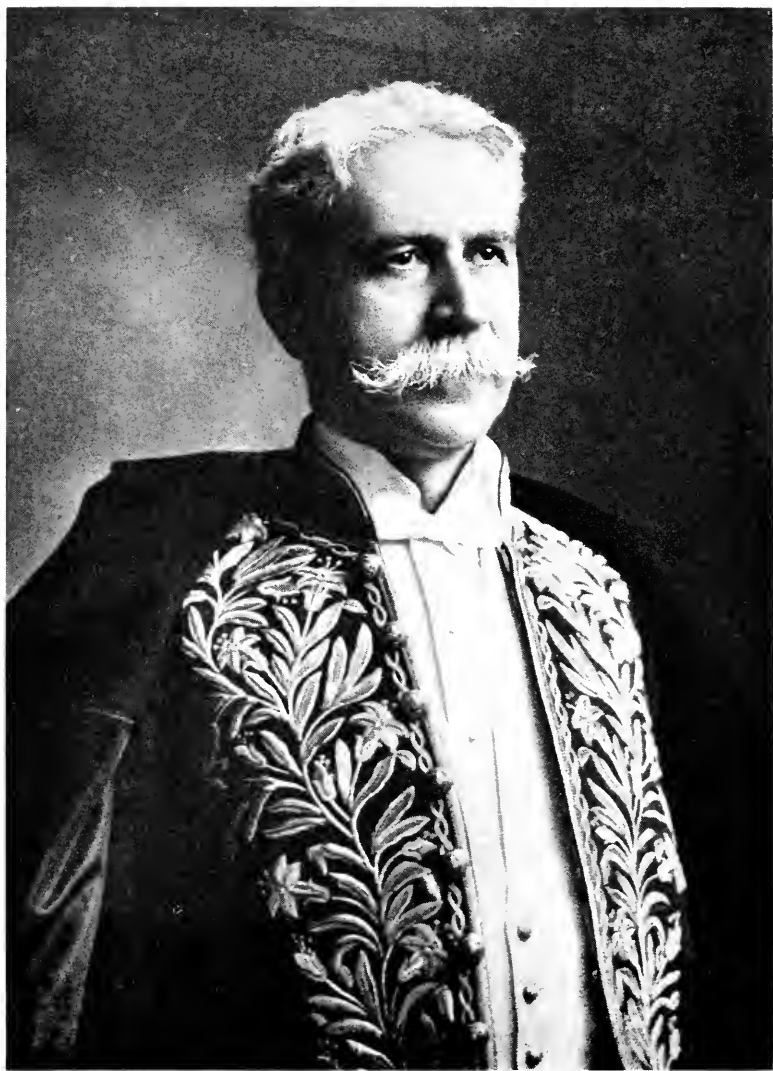
BUENAVENTURA, COLOMBIA.

This Colombian port, set against a beautiful mountain background, is provided with excellent docks and harbor works.



INDEPENDENCE PLAZA, PANAMA.

This square, flanked by some of the city's principal buildings, is but one of the delightful parks in the capital of the isthmian republic.



JOAQUIM NABUCO.

This brilliant Brazilian abolitionist, author, and statesman came to the United States in 1905 to be his country's first chief of mission after its legation had been raised to the rank of embassy.

JOAQUIM NABUCO

By MARIO MONTEIRO DE CARVALHO

NO one foresaw better than Joaquim Nabuco, Ambassador of Brazil in the United States from 1905 to his death in 1910, the continental policy of rapprochement. . . .

The personality of this notable statesman and abolitionist, pride of his race and wonderful apostle of justice—your great friend and my illustrious countryman—still awaits a faithful and just analysis. He has not yet been given due prominence in the pantheon of even his own country because his activities, which rose beyond national problems and tried to solve those of world-wide character, make him a figure which demands a consecrated study.

It appears that everything conspired from his childhood to prevent any obstacle from shadowing his destiny.

Born in 1849 of an illustrious Pernambuco family, with century-old traditions rooted in that then wealthy and prominent province of the Empire, Joaquim Nabuco had everything conducive to success in Brazilian life. His father, a cabinet minister and a man of great talent and culture, exercised a decisive influence over his intellectual development and preparation for the privileged position which he was to enjoy in the political life of his country. His mother, although intelligent and charming in the brilliant social and political life of her husband, was not the woman who developed the essential qualities in his character. This he owed to Mrs. Anna Rosa Falcão de Carvalho. "Thanks to her", says Joaquim Nabuco, "the world received me with a smile of such sweetness that all the tears imaginable could not make me forget her."

At the rich Massangana Mills, where he lived his first 8 years of childhood under the tender care of this lady, who did her utmost to replace his absent parents, he gained much at a period during which everything is stored for future use in life's journey. A lady of means, united to him by close ties of family, she surrounded him with every care, giving him a model education to awake the noble qualities which slept in his soul. Upon her death he went to live with his parents, whose wealth and social and political prominence in the Empire gave him an advantageous opportunity to develop his unfolding personality.

After moving from the city of Recife to Rio de Janeiro, he had as his teacher a famous educator, the Baron of Tautphoeus, who said of

¹ From an address delivered at the University of Chicago, while the author was representing Brazil at the Century of Progress.

him: "Joaquim has remarkable ability, far out of the ordinary. I never had another student with so much intelligence."

When barely 15 years old, he published a notable poem, *The Giant of Poland*, which the critics received with applause, advising him to continue writing, as literary laurels would reward him. The praise of the press as well as of the public encouraged him to further efforts and gave him intellectual prestige.

Upon entering the excellent law school of São Paulo, where a brilliant constellation of students was then to be found—among them were Ruy Barbosa, Castro Alves, the greatest Brazilian poet, Rodrigues Alves, and Affonso Penna, future presidents of the Republic—Joaquim Nabuco began his long and arduous work in favor of the abolition of slavery. From this moment, it appears that each step of his life was an advance against the shameful barrier in his country against liberty for all human beings. Going from São Paulo to Recife to complete his course in law, he did not lose his zeal to abolish slavery. In a letter to his illustrious father, then a senator of the Empire, he expressed himself thus:

There is an incomparable glory in this country which I have dreamed of for you. I want your name to appear beneath a decree terminating slavery. If you are called to serve as Prime Minister, accept the post, if only for 2 days, so that you may dictatorially abolish it. On this subject I shall quote here the words used in one of the last lectures of Agostinho Cochin about Abraham Lincoln. Speaking of the Proclamation of January 1, 1863, he said: "I shall not tell you in detail the history of this immortal proclamation which places Lincoln forever in the class of the greatest benefactors of humanity. I merely wish to focus your attention on the happiness which fills this heart, wounded by so much sorrow! Tell me! Is there, in the long years of history, in the numberless days of the life of man on this earth, anything so beautiful as this minute, this sacred second, in which this son of a laborer, this honest man, guided by the life of Washington, and by the Bible, this Christian, could place his name at the end of a page, which emancipated in a moment four million human beings? No! I do not believe there has been a conqueror, a victor, or a founder of an empire, who has had in his life an act and a moment comparable to the act and moment which will carry until remote posterity, the name of Abraham Lincoln, the Liberator of Slaves!" I dream and wish for you, my father, the glory of Abraham Lincoln! It will be the greatest day of my life when your name appears below another Proclamation of January first.

After obtaining his degree as a lawyer, Joaquim Nabuco began a prolific intellectual life in which literature and journalism filled all his time, fitting him for the great campaign of emancipation during which he handled with the elegance of a Florentine fencer the best weapons of a brilliant intelligence. Various literary works, such as *Camões e os Luziadas*, *Le Droit au Meurtre*, *L'Amour est Dieu*, and assiduous writing for the daily press of the capital, mark with great interest this period of his glorious youth.

On April 26, 1866, the youthful lawyer embarked upon his diplomatic career, with his appointment as attaché of legation in the

United States. From this first contact with American life there remained in his observing spirit the indelible impressions described by him in his book *My Mental Development*.

After serving in Washington, he was transferred to London, where he continued a life of active intellectual labor, favored by the prominent position which he enjoyed in the diplomatic world beside his great friend, Baron de Penedo, then our Minister in London.

Upon the death of his father in 1878, he returned to Brazil. Then began a more stirring, brilliant, and fruitful phase of his life. In the difficult campaign for the abolition of slavery in our country he revealed himself simultaneously as an orator of note and a perfect journalist. Always calm and noble in his bearing, no one surpassed him in the courage with which he fought for the emancipation of the slaves, until he became perhaps the deciding factor in securing the final abolition of slavery in 1888. . . .

Referring to the personality of the youthful Brazilian deputy, Gen. H. W. Hilliard,² the American Minister in Rio de Janeiro, said: "In all my life I have never met anyone whose future was more brilliant . . . He scintillated like a star in the firmament of his country and came later to realize the promise of his youth."

At this time, Joaquim Nabuco reached the climax of his public career at home. The youth of his country sang in the streets praises of his oratorical triumphs. His colleagues in the legislature lauded his parliamentary superiority. The most celebrated writers portrayed his heroic figure in immortal pages.

Graça Aranha, most noted member of the modern Brazilian literary school, who heard the oratorical flights of Joaquim Nabuco, subsequently published a beautiful page from which I quote: "Joaquim Nabuco was born an orator, and owed to his eloquence the better part of his prestige and his celebrity. He has the physical appearance of the men in whom multitudes instinctively believe, because they find them strong—the first of the conditions necessary to be sincere. Besides, he has the gift of correct manners, an intelligent look, and a charming smile, which attracts the sensitive."

Ruy Barbosa, the eminent lawyer, whose brilliant mind was well known and much admired in this country, spoke of the "keen intelligence" of Joaquim Nabuco, of the "starry magic of his enlightened word", and besides, saw in him the "winged genius of the abolition."

His liberal aspiration triumphed with the enactment of the law of May 13, 1888, signed by the Princess Isabel, who on that account was called "The Redemptress." The Republic was proclaimed the

² Of General Hilliard "The National Cyclopaedia of American Biography" (vol. II, p. 114), says: "It was in Brazil that the most illustrious and momentous service of General Hilliard's public career was done. The emancipation of the million and a half of her slaves was pending. He was applied to for the results of American emancipation. With magnificent ability he wrote a letter that was the turning-point of the colossal movement, and hastened the reform."—EDITOR.

following year, as a consequence of this first blow against the stability of the throne, and Joaquim Nabuco retired to his home. Here he enjoyed the companionship of his friends, recalling the political principles which he had defended, and from which he did not want to depart with the advent of the new regime. . . .

Spirit profoundly liberal! Always ready to oppose even his own most cherished political ideas whenever they conflicted with this inborn quality! He did not remain impassive before the Republican Government. He stated with frankness: "I was and am characterized as a monarchist, but this is secondary—accidental. I am truly and essentially a Liberal."

At first he believed, perhaps because he was fascinated by the magnanimity with which Dom Pedro II had guided Brazil, that any other form of government, even one based on democratic principles as promised by the Republic, would fail, endangering the real destiny of the nation. When, however, he discovered that his fears had no foundation, that his judgment had erred regarding several defects of the Republican organization, which were afterward corrected (owing, no doubt, to his own advice and his wise warnings) he lost no time in recognizing the mistake that he had made. He not only took this attitude, which in itself showed his political superiority, but went further. He did not hesitate, when repeatedly requested, to place at the service of his country the light of his high intelligence and the rich fountains of his long experience, obtained during a life of intense and constructive action.

Accepting an important diplomatic mission in Europe, Joaquim Nabuco returned to the service of his country with the same spirit of sacrifice and abnegation which distinguished him during the abolitionist campaign. His letter to the Minister of Foreign Relations, accepting the responsible and honorable mission, is a proud and precious document which shows in its golden paragraphs the extraordinary personality of this eminent man of politics.

In order not to be too lengthy and not to depart from the central subject of my lecture, I shall not follow Nabuco's whole luminous trajectory in the diplomatic history of his country. In 1905 we find him again in the United States, where he was sent as the first Ambassador of the first Embassy created by the Brazilian Government. It is in this post, the most important in an international political policy which Baron de Rio Branco, then our Minister of Foreign Affairs, had just planned with a rare foresight, that I continue to draw the portrait of Joaquim Nabuco as a diplomat . . .

On May 25, 1905, he presented to President Theodore Roosevelt his letters of credence as ambassador and "met a man who interested him as well as the whole world", as he himself expressed it.

The eloquent speech made by Joaquim Nabuco in this notable ceremony must be repeated here in its entirety. In it can be seen the political gesture, the diplomatic ability, which came to cement the old and deep friendship which today unites us indissolubly to your country:

MR. PRESIDENT. I have the honor to place in the hands of Your Excellency the letters that accredit me in the quality of Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Brazil near the Government of the United States of America.

The wishes of the two countries to strengthen still more the bonds of friendship that unite them have met spontaneously in their idea of raising at the same time the rank of their diplomatic agents at Washington and at Rio de Janeiro. I could not conceive a task more in accordance with our most intimate national aspirations than that which the President assigned to me in charging me with the creation at Washington of our first Embassy.

My first duty, Mr. President, on taking possession of this new post, is to present to Your Excellency the ardent wishes of the President of the Republic, of his Government, and of the Brazilian nation for your personal happiness and for the success of your new Administration.

The Roman Consulate had a much shorter duration than the American Presidency, and still Rome remembered the events of her history by the names of her consuls.

In the course of your charge there are also hours that engender epochs, gestures that become immutable national attitudes. That is the perpetuity which is assured to the period of Monroe, as well as to those of Washington and Lincoln.

Many believe that the striking popularity which carried you up to the supreme power is the augury of one of those decisions which stand, like theirs, as the landmarks of our Continent. The fact is that the place attained in the world allows to this country great initiatives, yet in that same path of a common American ideal. We will see it take them on our part with the same Continental interest and the same national security as heretofore.

All the wishes of Brazil are indeed for the increase of the immense moral influence which the United States exercises upon the march of civilization and which is shown by the existence on the map of the world, for the first time in history, of a vast neutral zone of peace and free human competition.

With such sentiments, Mr. President, I am doubly happy to find everywhere that your whole Nation at this hour recognizes itself with the same pride in a leader made to its form and its stature.

In replying, Theodore Roosevelt did not limit himself to the address of the protocol. Folding his paper before finishing his speech, he said: "I am going to do now what I used not to do—to add to what I have read", and he again manifested his pleasure at the creation of the Brazilian Embassy and at the approximation of the two countries; his vivid desire for an effective cooperation toward the realization of what Joaquim Nabuco had meant by the expression "neutral zone" and his belief in the great destiny of Brazil in the twentieth century. . . .

The Third Pan American Conference, which was held in Rio de Janeiro, and which had as the first topic on its agenda the reorganization of the Union of the American Republics in Washington, received from him special attention.

To make Pan Americanism effective in such a manner as to cement the relations between all of the American countries, it was necessary that an unprecedented and surprising event should be registered on the pages of history. It was realized in the voyage of Elihu Root to Rio de Janeiro and other cities of South America.

It was around the great ideal of concord and brotherhood that all Nabuco's diplomatic actions in the United States centered. Every moment was given to promoting it. His addresses and his letters, even the most intimate, reflected this permanent state of mind, and demonstrated the liberalism of his mental attitude and his lofty and intense love for his country, for which he dreamed a position of prominence beside the United States in the maintenance of continental peace.

On May 11, 1908, there was laid the cornerstone of the building of the Pan American Union, erected by the generosity of Andrew Carnegie and the contributions of the American Republics. On this occasion, Joaquim Nabuco pronounced one of his most magnificent orations. One feels, upon reading it after so many years, that the illustrious Ambassador of Brazil foresaw in that majesty of marble the materialization of a dream cherished since his heroic youth.

Joaquim Nabuco did not busy himself merely on the political and social sides of his diplomatic mission; he also spoke to the glorious youth of America, on whose soul, always ready to receive and to retain the idealism which he championed, the great orator impressed some of the most significant lessons of political philosophy. Two of his outstanding lectures were *The Approach of the Two Americas*, the convocation address of 1908 before this University [Chicago], published and widely distributed by the Association for International Conciliation; and the baccalaureate address delivered in 1909 at the University of Wisconsin, his subject being *The Contribution of America to Civilization*. This was published in the *American Historical Review*. In these two addresses he showed once more his spirit of universal conciliation.

Joaquim Nabuco was indefatigable, in spite of the precarious state of his health, in consolidating his policy of approximation by means of a propaganda in which his intelligence and his eloquence rivaled each other. . . . In the Liberal Club of Buffalo, he made a memorable address on *Lessons and Prophecies of the Third Pan American Conference*, in which he said: "The repeated reunions of our nations will force them to exchange ideas, to smooth out mutual difficulties, to understand more vividly their natural relationship. The creation of the organ preceded the sentiment which it should have developed, but which is already in force. Mr. Root converted the dream of Mr. Blaine into a reality."

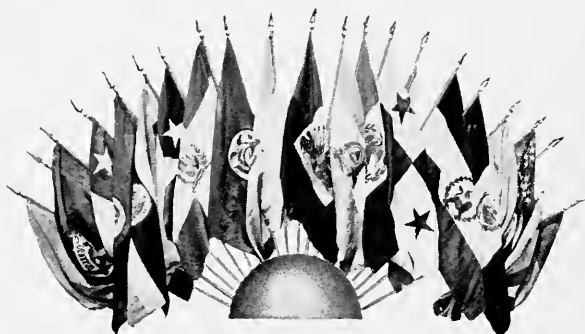
As you see, the diplomatic action of Ambassador Joaquim Nabuco in the United States was impressive and effective, on account of the intellectual power and the great altruism with which it was exercised. He did not pass through your country and through your history like a planet, adorning itself with a foreign light. He had it naturally, in its maximum intensity, like the sun. . . .

Since your present President is advocating continental policies consonant with our spiritual affinities and efficient in the sphere of our economic relations, performing deeds which mark him as the main figure in America of this historic era, Joaquim Nabuco should again be recalled. May his enthusiasm and his devotion to Pan Americanism, today more necessary by reason of the various and complex problems which present themselves to the foresight of Government executives, inspire President Franklin D. Roosevelt, your invincible crusader in this fight without precedent in the history of the world. . . .



A GROUP OF DELEGATES TO THE THIRD PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCE.

Elihu Root stands in the center of the first row, with Baron Rio Branco, Brazilian Minister of Foreign Relations, at the reader's left, and Joaquim Nabuco at the right.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Bibliographic series.—The Columbus Memorial Library announces the publication of two more numbers in this series. The Pan American Union had last year the privilege of publishing as no. 9 a bibliographic essay by Dr. A. Curtis Wilgus, director of Hispanic American Studies at George Washington University. This essay, entitled *The Histories of Hispanic America*, received a warm welcome both in the United States and throughout Latin America. It is now the privilege of the Union to present as no. 10 of the series another work by Dr. Wilgus, entitled *Maps relating to Latin American in books and periodicals* which, in a sense, supplements the earlier essay and will be of much assistance to students and investigators. About 5,000 maps have been listed, generally from books and periodicals found in the Library of the Pan American Union and the Library of Congress. All maps have been indexed under various headings according to what they illustrate.

No. 11, entitled *Bibliografía selecta sobre hortalizas*, was compiled by Victor R. Boswell, a specialist in the Division of Fruit and Vegetable Crop Diseases of the United States Department of Agriculture. This is a unique compilation, selected from thousands of references in the collection of the author. It is offered as an aid to persons interested in the development and improvement of vegetable crops.

Guatemalan books.—A list of books recently published in Guatemala appears in each issue of the *Boletín de la Biblioteca Nacional*, which also contains various bibliographic items as well as reviews and literary contributions by national authors.

Bogotá municipal library.—Plans for the reorganization of the municipal council of Bogotá provided for the establishment of a municipal reference library. This library, opened on October 28, 1933, with fitting ceremonies, already numbers 1,000 volumes and will be entirely devoted to works on municipal administration.

Accessions.—The following selected list was compiled from books received during the past month:

Concurso literario "Peuser", 1927; primer premio El oro blanco, por Armando Carrera; segundo premio Angustia, por Luciano M. Sicard; tercer premio El turco de "El Mangrullo", por D. Fernández. Buenos Aires, [Casa Jacobo Peuser, ltda.] 1928. 157 p. 19 cm.

Los indios de Chile, lo que actualmente se sabe sobre ellos, [por] Carlos Oliver Schneider. Concepción. Ex-talleres gráficos de "El Sur", 1932. 102 p. 18½ cm.

Apuntes sobre la provincia misionera de Orinoco e indígenas de su territorio con algunas otras particularidades, por el R. P. Fray Ramón Bueno . . . Caracas, Tipografía Americana, 1933. 164 p. 23 cm.

XXIII salón anual de artes plásticas [bajo la] Dirección nacional de bellas artes de la Ministerio de instrucción pública. Buenos Aires, 21 septiembre–21 octubre 1933. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos argentinos, L. J. Rosso [1933] [28] p. 220 illus. 24 cm.

Exposición del libro desde el siglo vi a nuestros días en las salas del Museo nacional de bellas artes, octubre de 1933 [bajo la] Dirección nacional de bellas artes del Ministerio de instrucción pública. Buenos Aires, 1933. 16 p. 24½ cm.

Atitlán, an archaeological study of ancient remains on the borders of Lake Atitlán, Guatemala, by Samuel Kirkland Lothrop. [Washington, D.C.] Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1933. 122 p., illus. 30 cm.

The book of Chilam Balam of Chumayel, by Ralph Roys. [Washington, D.C.] Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1933. 229 p. illus., pl., fold. map. 30 cm.

Historia de la independencia de Panamá, sus antecedentes y sus causas 1821–1903, [por] C. Arrocha Graell. Panama, The Star & Herald Co., 1933. 277 p. 22½ cm.

Problemas de educação moderna, ensaios pedagogicos . . ., [por] Leoni Kaseff. Edição do autor. Rio de Janeiro [Officinas graphicas Arte moderna ltda.] 1933. 253 p. 19 cm.

Educação dos super-normaes como formar as elites nas democracias, [por] Leoni Kaseff . . . Rio de Janeiro, J. R. de Oliveira & cia., 1931. 298 p. diags. 24 cm.

Rivadavia y sus gestiones diplomáticas con España (1815–1820), [por] Mario Belgrano. Buenos Aires, Librería de A. García Santos, 1933. 115 p. 20½ cm.

Economía y finanzas de la nación argentina, 1922–32, con estudios sobre la crisis mundial y sus efectos, [por] Carlos F. Soares. Buenos Aires, Compañía impresora argentina, s.a., 1932. t. iii: 339 p. 26½ cm.

Crítica menor, [por] J. Torrendell . . . Segunda edición. Buenos Aires, Editorial Tor [1933]. 268 p. 19 cm.

Aurelio Martínez Mutis (estudio crítico), por José Fulgencio Gutiérrez. Bucaramanga, Imprenta del Departamento, 1933. 194 p. 23 cm. (Estudio; órgano del Centro de historia de Santander, Año II, números 21, 22, 23, 24, junio, julio, agosto, septiembre, 1933.)

Códice Sierra; traducción al español de su texto Nahuatl y explicación de sus pinturas jeroglíficas, por el doctor Nicolás León. . . México, Imprenta del Museo nacional de arqueología, historia y etnografía, 1933. 71 p. plates, fold. facsim. in pocket. 33 cm.

New periodical.—The following periodical is the only new one received in the library during the past month:

Revista polytechnica; órgão de "Gremio polytechnico", São Paulo, 1933. Anno xxx, série 13ª, setembro-outubro, 1933. p. [217]–318 incl. illus., ports. 27 x 19 cm. Bi-monthly. Editor: Ernesto Sampaio de Freitas. Address: Escola Polytechnica, Rua Tres Rios, São Paulo, Brasil.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

PERUVIAN ECONOMIC, PUBLIC CREDIT AND FLOATING DEBT BOARDS

Article 182 of the new constitution of Peru, promulgated April 9, 1933, provided for the creation of a National Economic Council on which consumers, capital, labor, and the liberal professions were to be represented. The organization and functions of the council were to be determined by subsequent legislation.

On September 23 of that year President Benavides issued a decree establishing the National Economic Consultative Council to advise the Government in the study and solution of economic and financial problems submitted to it. The Minister of Finance is ex-officio chairman of the council, and any or all of the other cabinet members may attend its meetings or utilize its services in matters concerning their respective portfolios. The council as originally outlined was to be composed of 30 Peruvian citizens, chosen from among specialists in the different fields. Of these, 10 were to be appointed by the President of the Republic; and the other 20 were to be the president and the general manager of the Central Reserve Bank of Peru; the chairman of the board of directors and the manager of the main office of the Caja de Depósitos y Consignaciones; one delegate apiece from the Central Mortgage Bank of Peru, the Agricultural Bank of Peru, and the Industrial Bank of Peru, appointed by their respective boards of directors; a delegate of the commercial banks, appointed by the Bank Association; a delegate for each of the following institutions: the Chamber of Commerce of Lima, the Chamber of Commerce of Callao, the National Agrarian Society, the National Mining Society, the Society of Small-scale Miners, the Stockraisers' Association of Peru, the National Industrial Society, the Association of Business Men, and the Association of Real Estate Owners of Lima; two representatives of labor organizations; and a representative of the Society of Commercial Employees. The membership was increased to 33 by a supplementary decree issued five days later, the new members to represent the Bar of Lima, the National Academy of Medicine, and the Society of Engineers, respectively. On November 3 still another decree removed the limit to the number of Presidential appointees.

The council will function both in plenary session and in sub-committees appointed by the chairman or, in certain cases, by a cabinet member.

Both the council and its committees are empowered to consult in writing officials or representatives of economic entities or to invite them to take part in their deliberations; such participation, however, does not entitle the guests to the right to vote.

The Minister of Finance will issue, at the instance of the council, such regulations as may be necessary for its functioning.

The first meeting of the council, which was held on November 3 in the Presidential Palace, was attended by the Chief Executive and members of his Cabinet, and over 50 members of the council. After a brief speech of welcome by President Benavides, Señor Solf y Muro, the Minister of Finance, delivered an address in which he said:¹

On the inauguration of this council I wish to explain the purpose which the Government has in view. The Government is aware that the country desires an administration which weighs well its acts and does not allow the interests of the community at large to be supplanted by conflicting interests acting in anarchy. The support of associations representing our economic interests is, therefore, necessary to permit the administration of the country to be carried on efficiently and to guide its economic policy, especially in the organization of labor, to use that word in its broadest sense. The Government believes that if the world is leading a life of disorder which is reducing mankind to misery, it is from lack of discipline in production and in the interchange of products, due to defects in one-sided economies. These views have led to the creation of the Economic Council. It aims at coordinating collective interests, and for this reason it should have an advantage over committees and fortuitous assemblies which, however willing they may be, usually act without cohesion.

This new body has also to satisfy the desire of all who seek to participate, of all whose influence in commerce, industry, labor, in the university, in the press, in books, or in professional duties qualifies them for the task. We must react against the system of solving important questions which affect our economy and the wealth of the country, without consulting the will of the people. Every resolution we adopt should be an adequate remedy for the ills from which we suffer. It is to be hoped that this council may follow the example of other similar institutions which, dating from that of Weimar, have come into being, notably in America. . . .

In creating this council the Government has no intention to set on foot a paper reform or to create a merely ornamental institution. For its efficient working the council can count upon technical collaboration to convert into social arithmetic the life of the nation and to build up on a sound basis an equilibrium between the Government which directs and the people which lends it its confidence. This council must just be a factory in which is to be elaborated the new economy of Peru. We who temporarily occupy the Government must make foresight and exactitude our policy and our doctrine. And that is the soundest reason why you should collaborate in the work of national restoration to which the President of the Republic is pledged.

¹As translated in "The West Coast Leader", Lima, Nov. 7, 1933.

Two problems were on the same day submitted to the council by presidential decree. The first dealt with the contract for the administration of the postal, telegraphic, and radio-telegraphic services of the nation; a subcommittee was appointed to discuss with representatives of the company now enjoying the concession the bases of a new agreement and to submit to the Government a new contract formula. The second question was that of finishing the Callao port works. A subcommittee was to examine the advisability of renewing the contract with the original firm and make recommendations as soon as possible for satisfactorily concluding the project.

The other two advisory bodies also created on September 23 are the Public Credit Consultative Board and the Floating Debt Commission. The former is an honorary entity, composed of 4 ex-officio members—the Minister of Finance and Commerce as chairman, 2 representatives of the Central Reserve Bank of Peru, appointed by the board of directors, and 1 similarly elected from the *Caja de Depósitos y Consignaciones*—and 3 citizens appointed by the President. It will recommend measures for the reorganization of the national debt.

The Floating Debt Commission is made up of three members named by the President; to them is intrusted the task of studying national finances, determining the total amount of the internal debt still unconsolidated, and presenting to the Minister of Finance an analytical report on the floating debt.—B.N.



THE MERCHANT MARINE OF BRAZIL

Brazil has a coastline more than 4,000 miles long and within its territory there are about 40,000 miles of navigable rivers. The economic development of the country has followed the path of least resistance and taken place mainly along its extended shore. Today the principal cities are located near the sea and two thirds of the 42,000,000 inhabitants of the Republic live on the eastern plateau which extends from Pernambuco to Rio Grande do Sul. With only 20,000 miles of railway for a country about 3,000,000 square miles in extent and with approximately half that mileage located in the States of São Paulo and Minas Geraes, the interior of Brazil is largely dependent for transportation upon its excellent network of rivers. Moreover, since the greater part of the railway mileage consists of lines radiating from the seaports and penetrating into the interior for relatively short distances, much of the transportation between the northern and southern States depends upon coastal navigation.

Foreign ships may carry passengers between ports in Brazil but the transportation of merchandise is reserved by law to Brazilian

companies. For the transportation of this merchandise, amounting to 1,727,541 tons in 1932, Brazil counts upon a merchant marine which includes 295 power-driven vessels of 100 gross tons or more, its total tonnage being of 488,888 gross tons. The development of the commercial fleet of the country may be traced by the following table, based upon Lloyd's Register data, which shows Brazil's commercial tonnage in vessels of 100 gross tons or more from July 1, 1913, to July 1, 1933:

Year (July 1)	Total fleet (gross tons)	Power-driven vessels (gross tons)	Sailing vessels (gross tons)	Year (July 1)	Total fleet (gross tons)	Power-driven vessels (gross tons)	Sailing vessels (gross tons)
1913.....	305,330	290,887	14,443	1924.....	464,734	444,605	20,129
1914.....	329,637	313,416	16,221	1925.....	465,643	447,554	18,089
1915.....	323,939	307,607	16,332	1926.....	482,308	464,549	17,759
1916.....	317,414	302,513	14,901	1927.....	525,431	507,725	17,706
1917.....	303,800	290,637	13,163	1928.....	559,468	542,092	17,376
1919.....	512,675	492,588	20,087	1929.....	560,680	545,695	14,985
1920.....	497,860	475,224	22,636	1930.....	558,777	543,613	15,164
1921.....	499,325	476,436	22,889	1931.....	498,789	493,943	4,846
1922.....	492,571	469,444	23,127	1932.....	-----	491,647	(1)
1923.....	478,630	459,416	19,214	1933.....	-----	488,888	(1)

¹ Tonnage of sailing vessels insignificant.

On July 1, 1933, 84 percent of the Brazilian merchant fleet consisted of vessels over 15 years old, as shown in the following table ¹ in which the power-driven fleet is divided into groups according to the size and age of the vessels:

	Total fleet (gross tons)	Under 5 years (gross tons)	5 and under 15 years (gross tons)	15 years and over (gross tons)
100 tons and under 500 tons.....	36,825	1,464	3,794	31,537
500 tons and under 1,000 tons.....	30,731	-----	5,654	25,077
1,000 tons and under 2,000 tons.....	59,737	-----	8,639	51,098
2,000 tons and under 4,000 tons.....	126,523	-----	13,122	113,401
4,000 tons and under 6,000 tons.....	145,861	-----	44,518	101,343
6,000 tons and under 8,000 tons.....	71,185	-----	-----	71,185
8,000 tons and under 10,000 tons.....	18,026	-----	-----	18,026
	488,888	1,464	75,727	411,667

The relation between the Brazilian Government and the merchant marine has been a close one from the beginning. In its efforts to provide communication between the widely separated Brazilian communities, the government began granting subsidies for coastal steamship services as early as 1836 and today is the owner of one of the largest government-controlled fleets in the world. The first line to be subsidized was a steamer service in the northern coastal region connecting Pará and Bahia, 1,400 miles apart. In 1890 this service was merged with the principal subsidized coastal lines existing at the

¹ From Lloyd's Register of Shipping.

time to form the Lloyd Brasileiro. This company was operated directly by the government until 1920, when it was given a commercial status through incorporation. Practically all the stock in the corporation is owned by the Brazilian Government, which grants it an annual subsidy of 20,000,000 milreis. Besides this subsidy the government grants the Lloyd many preferences (Decree No. 19682 of February 9, 1931) intended to reduce the cost of operation. Among them are exemption from taxes and import duties; a 50 percent reduction on the fees collected from the vessels of the company by Brazilian consulates in European and American ports; and a like reduction on telegraphic charges and on visa fees for bills of lading and consular invoices of shippers who use the company's vessels.²

The Lloyd Brasileiro owns 73 vessels; their gross tonnage of 270,623 is more than half the total of the Brazilian merchant marine. It operates 16 services, including those to the United States, Europe, and the River Plate Republics, and coastwise and river services connecting all Brazilian ports from Rio Grande do Sul in the south to Pará in the north and also reaching Manaus, about 1,000 miles up the Amazon. The Lloyd's fleet is divided as follows by size and age:

Number of vessels	Steam	Motor	Gross tons	Ages
4	1	3	4,124	5-10
6	6	-----	28,301	11-20
45	44	1	170,268	21-30
18	18	-----	67,930	31 and over.
73	69	4	270,623	-----

During the World War the Government seized 43 German vessels which were in Brazilian ports and turned them over to the Lloyd Brasileiro. Thirty of these vessels were chartered to the French Government and at the conclusion of the War all but two, which had been lost, were returned to the Lloyd fleet.

The Lloyd Brasileiro maintains two dry docks and a number of machine shops, foundries, etc., on the islands of Mocanguê and Conceição in Rio de Janeiro Bay. The installations on Mocanguê are valued at 150,293,000 milreis and about 2,000 men find employment there.

Next to the Lloyd Brasileiro, the largest Brazilian steamship company is the Companhia Nacional de Navegação Costeira, with a fleet of 26 vessels having a gross tonnage of 61,801 tons. This company, founded in 1891, is controlled by the Lage brothers, the descendants of a family which has been in the shipping business since 1820.

² "Shipping and Shipbuilding Subsidies," by Jesse E. Saugstad, Trade Promotion Series No. 129, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, U.S. Department of Commerce, 1932.

The following table, compiled from Lloyd's Register data, shows details as to the company's fleet on July 1, 1933:

Number of vessels	Steam	Motor	Gross tons	Ages
7	2	5	31,830	5-10
5	5	-----	9,131	11-20
7	8	1	13,156	21-30
7	6	1	6,684	40
26	21	7	61,801	-----

The Companhia Nacional de Navegação Costeira maintains weekly passenger and cargo services between Pará, Maranhão, Ceará, Mossoro, Cabedello, Natal, Pernambuco, and Bahia in the north and Rio de Janeiro, Santos, Rio Grande do Sul, Pelotas, and Porto Alegre in the south. It owns the Island of Vianna containing 4,642 acres, in the bay of Rio de Janeiro; there it employs about 1,800 men in shipyards, a drydock, modern machine shops, and an electric generating plant.

Another Brazilian steamship company engaged in the coastwise trade is the Lloyd Nacional, a stock company established in 1917. It has a fleet of 13 vessels with a total gross tonnage of 36,341 tons as follows:

Number of vessels	Steam	Motor	Gross tons	Ages
3	-----	3	14,616	5-10
1	1	-----	2,326	11-20
4	4	-----	8,627	21-30
5	5	-----	10,772	Over 30
13	10	3	36,341	-----

The Lloyd Nacional calls at Rio de Janeiro, Victoria, Bahia, Maceio, Pernambuco, Cabedello, Maranhão, Pará, Rio Grande do Sul and other Brazilian ports, and sometimes at Montevideo, Uruguay.

Of the companies engaged in river traffic the principal one is the Amazon River Steam Navigation Co. Its fleet is divided as follows by size and age:

Number of vessels	Steam	Motor	Gross tons	Ages
13	13	-----	8,861	20-30
4	4	-----	1,602	31-40
9	9	-----	3,484	41-51
26	26	-----	13,947	-----

This company maintains cargo and passenger services on the Amazon and its principal tributaries, the Purús, Madeira, Tapajoz, Oyapock, Pirabas, Javary, Juruá, and the Negro Rivers. Its services connect Pará with Manaos, Cobija, Porto Velho, Itatuiba, Oyapock, Pirabas, Iquitos, and other river ports.—G.A.S.

THE GOLDEN ANNIVERSARIES OF THE MINING AND MANUFACTURING SOCIETIES OF CHILE

Two important industrial societies of Chile, the Mining Society and the Society to Promote Manufacturing, recently observed their semicentenaries. The former was founded on September 26, 1883, and during its 50 years has been the guiding spirit in the development of the national mining industry.

One of the first tasks undertaken by the society was the revision of the Mining Code of 1876, and it was largely due to its efforts that that of 1888 and subsequent ones, culminating in the code of 1930, were passed. In 1884 the society founded a monthly publication, in whose pages have appeared the results of scientific research and other material of inestimable value to all phases of the mining industry.

The Mining Society was largely instrumental in the establishment of the Bureau of Public Works in 1889, and has cooperated with the Government in the drafting and study of mining legislation, in the establishment of the Caja de Crédito Minero (Mining Credit Bank) and in the exploitation of specific minerals, notably gold. It organized in 1894 the International Mining Exposition which attracted foreign capital to the country and led to the great expansion of the industry during the following decades. To this society, too, belongs the credit for the increased cooperation between individual mining interests, as well as for the establishment of official services of technical and economic character. The extent of the society's importance in its field is indicated by the fact that the Government has frequently consulted it in questions involving the protection or extension of mining interests. The society hopes in the near future to prepare a geological map of Chile; to place greater emphasis on nonmetallic industries, especially coal and oil, both essential factors in modern industry; and to study economic questions allied with the protection of industry.

On October 7, the Society to Promote Manufacturing celebrated its golden anniversary. It was founded in 1883 at the instance of the then Minister of Finance, Señor Pedro Lucio Cuadra, representing the Government; at his suggestion a meeting was held under the auspices of the National Agricultural Society to "discuss the organization of an

association to promote manufacturing which, having its headquarters in the capital, should include all the industrial elements established in the Republic, in order that, constituted as a representative corporation, it might serve every manufacturing interest." A committee was appointed to draw up a constitution and bylaws for the nascent organization; they were adopted the following week, and the society started on its career of usefulness and public service.

From the very nature of the organization, the activities of the Society to Promote Manufacturing have been wider in range, although no more important in their field, than those of the Mining Society. As in the case of its elder sister, it began the publication of a bulletin in 1884, and the 49 volumes which have appeared constitute a rich source of interesting and varied information on the subjects coming within its sphere. From the same year dates its interest in industrial education, and in the half century ensuing the society has been instrumental in establishing many industrial schools and special courses in Santiago and other industrial cities. In the capital alone the society at present supports five schools and as many special courses. At the headquarters in Santiago an industrial library, open 7 hours a day, is maintained both for members and for the general public.

Similar in purpose have been the holding of expositions and the establishment of industrial museums. The society cooperated with the agricultural and mining societies in planning the national exposition of 1884, which received the hearty support of the Government. The industrial section, under the direction of the Society to Promote Manufacturing, contained 15 classes of exhibits, and was a great revelation to many Chileans hitherto unaware that, under the stimulus of a depreciated currency, native industry had already reached a comparatively high degree of development. Subsequently the society cooperated in arranging exhibits for many national and international expositions; in the latter Chile has been among the leading exhibitors. In its first year, the society had recommended the creation of an industrial museum, and in the following years, until the necessary financial support for such an enterprise could be obtained, it was sponsoring exhibits that were in reality the temporary equivalent of such a museum. In 1903 a permanent exhibit was established, which is housed in its present form in the lower floors of the society's headquarters.

Almost from its inception the society has been interested in industrial statistics; it cooperated with the Government in the task of obtaining them until the Bureau of Statistics was established as a Government department in 1911. The statistics, therefore, for 1908, the first year in which complete figures were available, 1909 and 1910, were prepared, at Government expense, by the society.

In the economic aspect of industrial questions the society has played an important and fearless part. It has recommended such protective tariffs and subventions for the establishment of new industries as circumstances warranted. It has also taken an active interest in certain industries of prime importance to the economic development of the country; in nearly every case where special legislation dealing with any of them has been passed, the society has been instrumental in drafting it, sometimes at the request of the Government, sometimes on its own initiative. The Government has consulted the society in the case of many commercial treaties, both with European and with other American nations.

Recognizing that the development of manufacturing does not depend alone on the individual initiative of the industrialist, the Society to Promote Manufacturing has also interested itself in the workingman, on whom industry depends to so great a degree. In 1884 the society was authorized to arrange for introducing selected industrial immigrants into Chile, and for 20 years it was instrumental in bringing to the country a high type of citizen. Adequate housing for workers was another problem early to engage the active interest of the society, although no constructive measures were passed by the Government until 1906. Other subjects on which the society has submitted recommendations to the Government are child labor, the regulation of the work of women and minors, health regulations for factories and shops, and accident prevention and compensation.

More recently the society has been giving attention to legislation dealing with agricultural products having industrial value; the study of the forests of southern Chile, with a view to utilizing the wood in the manufacture of cellulose; the protection of tanning; and the alcohol industry. The society has also been responsible for some financial legislation, and shared in revising national corporation laws.

With this splendid record of effort and accomplishment, the Society to Promote Manufacturing celebrated its semicentennial at a special meeting held on October 6, 1933, in the Salón de Honor of the Society. The history of the society and its past achievements were outlined, credit for the present state of national industries—which represent an investment of 3,718,000,000 pesos and give employment to 300,000 workers—given to its activities, and the promising outlook for future development discussed. At the meeting, too, the winner of the 5,000-peso prize offered by the society for an essay on *The History of Industrial Development in Chile* was announced—Señor Óscar Álvarez Andrews, who has several studies on social legislation and industry to his credit.

An integral part of the celebration was a special industrial exhibition, in which 126 enterprises were represented. The articles displayed included textiles and ready-made articles, toilet preparations, leather and leather goods, metals and metal products, electric supplies, ceramics and glass, foodstuffs, and wines and liquors. The exhibition was open to the public during the month of October and, after special exhibits had been withdrawn, was to be maintained permanently in the same quarters.—B. N.



AN EXHIBIT OF THE CHILEAN SOCIETY TO PROMOTE MANUFACTURING.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE REFERENDUM IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

The constitution of the Dominican Republic limits the vote to male citizens eighteen years of age and over, and to those under eighteen who are or have been married. In order to grant suffrage to women a constitutional amendment is necessary, and although the Government is sympathetic to the feminist movement in the country, it does not consider it advisable to alter the constitution in this direction until the wisdom of the step has been demonstrated. The President of the Republic has therefore issued a decree, dated November 22, 1933, granting to women the right to participate in a special referendum to be held at the same time as the elections of 1934, with a view to determining, by the number of women voting and their expressed opinion on suffrage, the desirability of amending the constitution to give them the right to vote and to hold office on the same terms as men. The referendum is to be held at the same time and places as the constitutional elections, and all women fulfilling the suffrage qualifications established by the constitution for men will be permitted to participate. The decree further states that to the Dominican Feminist Party, or any other organization duly constituted for the same purpose, shall be entrusted everything relative to the organization of this referendum.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION AND EXPERIMENTS IN COLOMBIA

Fruit farming.—There are regions in Colombia well suited to the establishment of orchards, and trials thus far made are proving that this type of farming offers one of the best commercial possibilities. In Colombia there are many varieties of native fruits of excellent quality, as well as others which have been imported and thoroughly acclimatized, which together form a basis for the propagation of first-class fruits.

The Ministry of Industries, through its extension workers, has undertaken a campaign of cool-climate fruit culture in various sections of Boyacá and Cundinamarca, where instructions and demonstrations have been given in the establishment of nurseries, the different kinds of budding, grafting, and pruning, methods of combating diseases and pests, and steps in transplanting trees and laying out and caring for orchards.

Weather Bureau.—The division of the Ministry of Industries which has charge of meteorology has continued to extend the radius of its activities and service. During 1932, 22 new observation stations were established, bringing the total to 172; the necessary requests for appropriations have been made to continue increasing this number, especially of those determining maximum and minimum rainfall and temperature. Requests have been made also, in conjunction with the Ministry of War, for needed equipment to make meteorological studies and surveys from the air.

There is now ready for publication a very complete summary of all the meteorological data which have been gathered in Colombia over the past century or more, including the year 1932. This publication will be of enormous scientific and practical value, and its appearance will signalize one of the most outstanding achievements of the Ministry of Industries in behalf of national agricultural development.

Control of insect pests.—This service continued to enlarge its activities. The number of pumps loaned to farmers for spraying was increased, until now these growers are convinced of the practical advantages to be enjoyed by the use of this apparatus. The service is gradually improving its work of protecting crops and increasing production in those sections of the country which suffer particularly from insect ravages.

Agricultural education.—Special attention has been paid to the work of elementary education in agriculture, which is being given in the three schools of San Bernardo and La Picota, both located in Bogotá, and San Jorge, in Ibagué. There has also been close cooperation with the school of agronomy at Antioquia and with the agricultural schools attached to the coffee experimental farms and to the primary schools throughout the country.

The school of agronomy at Antioquia, which is the only one in the country providing professional instruction in agriculture, possesses 42 *fanegas* of land, located on the banks of the Medellín River on the outskirts of the city, on which has been erected a 2-story building which houses lecture halls, laboratories, a library, shops, offices, etc.; complete laboratory equipment has also been installed for the teaching of chemistry, agricultural physics, zoology, entomology, plant pathology, dairying, etc., as well as a special library on agriculture and animal industry. The school also owns dairy barns, service stables, hog houses and lots, and poultry houses, as well as fine animals of various breeds. There is also a building given over to the practice of veterinary medicine.

Agricultural Experiment Station at La Picota.—The Agricultural Experiment Station of La Picota may be said to be the principal experimental station of the Government of Colombia. This station,

located near Bogotá, has in recent years centered its attention on the introduction of new crop plants; among these is the forage plant *Kikuyu*, which has become quite popular; especially in the Departments of Cundinamarca and Boyacá.

In recent years the Division of Agronomy has greatly broadened its activities, specializing in the systematic search for means to improve the cool climate crops of Colombia. In this connection it has imported collections of seeds of the best varieties of crops adaptable to such regions.

Other divisions within the station include the experimental division, where a study is being made of 178 different varieties of wheat, of which 18 are native and the rest imported. This study calls for about 800 plots, on the basis of which notes are constantly being added to the records concerning all phases of growth from the percentage of seed germination to production and yield. In addition to wheat, this division is studying native varieties of barley, vetches, corn, potatoes, and other crops.

The industrial division, which is conducting studies on the products already named and on rye and alfalfa, has under cultivation around 70 *fanegas*, and prospects for the various crops are most promising.

The new division of horticulture already has about 2,000 fruit trees, most of which are grafted. This station also has divisions of poultry, animal and dairy industry, and rabbit breeding.

Demonstration farm of San Andrés.—Continued interest is being devoted to the development and progress of the work on this farm, which was established in 1931 by the Ministry of Industries principally to determine, by means of experiments in the acclimatization of new crops on the islands of San Andrés, a suitable diversification of their agriculture which would permit the inhabitants to obtain the greatest amount of cheap food and at the same time prevent the dangers inherent in the single-crop raising of coconuts. During periods of drought the latter industry is in a precarious position on account of attacks made by scale insects. The agricultural expert in charge of this farm is also giving instructions in the drainage and clearing of coconut plantations.

Agricultural Station of Palmira.—This station has gone ahead with experiments in tropical agriculture, with great benefits accruing not only to the Department of El Valle but to the whole country, through the distribution in ever-increasing quantities of the seeds and plants which it produces.

Four fine brick buildings have been added for various purposes. One will contain machinery to process and store the many tropical products of the region. A second building will have a dormitory, dining room, and lecture hall for the practical school of agriculture

which opened last year. The other two serve as living quarters for the station's technical staff and their families.

The station has received equipment for cleaning and grading grain, with a capacity of 2,200 pounds per hour, which will be of great value in connection with the rice crop; 2,400 fruit and ornamental trees from Brazil; and from other countries many plants and seeds, whose adaptability to the region is being studied.

Experimental farms.—The Tulio Ospina government farm comprises approximately 12 *fanegas* of the school grounds at Antioquia in the Medellín River valley, and is irrigated by the waters of that stream. The principal enterprises of the farm are: sugar cane, acclimatization work, varietal investigation, study of planting distances, and liming experiments; in cacao and coffee, pruning and fertilizers. In the case of cotton, a study is being made of varieties, as well as a comparative test between planting the crop alone and mixed with corn and with legumes; in wheat, an experiment with the culture of varieties considered suitable to the climate and soil of Medellín; in yuca and bananas, varietal studies; in corn, selection of seed and planting distances; and in forage crops, the collection of grasses and legumes to determine those best adapted to the growing conditions of the region.

Six other experimental farms have cooperated extremely well, distributing seeds, agricultural machinery, livestock and publications among the surrounding farmers. They have been particularly helpful in this respect to the various school garden groups which were studying elementary agriculture.

Extension service.—Agricultural extension work has advanced notably, particularly that of the regional experts of the Ministry of Industries, as shown by the results obtained through their efforts to establish and improve different crops in many localities by means of actual demonstrations in the field.

One of the most outstanding benefits of this service is the education of the average farmer to modern ideas as to lowering the cost and raising the quality of his products. This has been achieved by means of demonstration work which the experts have carried out on the farms themselves. Its final result will be to raise the general rural population to a more advanced and secure economic plane.

The extension service has been extended through the creation of new regions to be served by experts, so that within a few months there will be at least one expert in each department of the country.

Radio broadcasts.—The Department of Agriculture and Animal Industry broadcasts regularly over Station HJN items dealing with the various phases of these two industries. It can be observed that these broadcasts are being followed by more and more farmers, and

that this useful means of supplying ready information is being constantly improved in quality and presentation.

Departmental societies of farmers.—The Department of Agriculture has promoted the organization of these societies in the capitals of all the departments. In addition, there are various local societies or boards, which are organized as branches of the central bodies. It is hoped that these branch organizations will be set up in every township in order that the departmental societies, the Government and the farmers may have an effective means of finding out the agricultural needs of the entire country.

The Ministry of Industries has furnished various of these organizations with agricultural implements and seeds, as well as with publications and information to assist in carrying out their plans.—José COLOM.

ADVANCED AGRICULTURAL STUDIES IN PERU

The President of Peru issued on June 6, 1933, a decree establishing the Institute of Advanced Agricultural Studies, for advanced professional instruction and intensive studies in research and experimentation. The institute is to be composed of three sections: The National School of Agriculture and Veterinary Science and the Practice Farm (Granja Escuela); the research and experiment division, which will include La Molina Agricultural Experiment Station and its dependencies, the National Agricultural Institute of Serums and Vaccines, and the National Weather Bureau; and the practice division, in charge of carrying out model agricultural and industrial practices on the lands and buildings belonging to the National School of Agriculture and Veterinary Science. The Institute of Advanced Agricultural Studies will be under the direct authority of the Bureau of Agriculture and Stockraising, supervised by the General Bureau of Experimentation; the Superintendent of La Molina Experimental Agricultural Station will also be superintendent of the Institute.

NECROLOGY

General Ismael Montes.—On November 18, 1933, General Ismael Montes, soldier, statesman, and twice President of BOLIVIA, died in La Paz at the age of 72, after many years of active participation in the professional, political, and military affairs of his country.

At one time he occupied the chair of civil law at the University of La Paz; his *Treatise on Bolivian Civil Law*, based on his early lectures, is still authoritative.

Elected to the Presidency in 1904, General Montes did much for the material and intellectual advancement of Bolivia. His first term of office was distinguished by great advances in railway and road construction, by the stabilization of the currency, and especially by the great impetus given to cultural activities. The educational budget was multiplied several fold, the normal school was established, special commissions were sent abroad to study educational systems, a Belgian mission invited to reorganize public instruction, schools of practical agricultural training were founded, and the meteorological observatory in La Paz, the National Conservatory of Music, the first educational museum, and the National Institute of Commerce were established. During his second administration (1913–1917), General Montes continued many of the reforms which he had begun, and realized some of the railway projects conceived in his first administration. The Advanced Normal School, the Vocational School, and other similar institutions were also created.

While Minister to France, after his first term of office, General Montes interested himself in financial matters, and it was largely through his efforts that the Bolivian National Bank (now the Central Bank of Bolivia) was founded. During the last years of his life he served as its president.

Dr. Enrique José Varona.—The noted CUBAN writer, philosopher, and statesman, Dr. Enrique José Varona, died in Habana on November 19, 1933, in his 85th year.

Dr. Varona began his political career in colonial days, when he represented Camagüey, his native Province, in the Spanish Cortes. There, as later in New York and Cuba, he worked for the independence of his country. Once that had been achieved, he took an interested but less active part in politics, although in 1920 he was elected Vice President of the Republic.

As a writer, Dr. Varona was known and revered throughout America and in Europe. He began his literary career while still a university student, and his wide range of interests was reflected in his literary output. A bibliography of his published works, compiled shortly before his death, lists nearly 2,000 items; the subject matter includes poetry, translations, essays, criticism, and philosophy. Many of them have been translated into English, French, and Italian.

But it was as a professor in the University of Habana, with which he was connected for over half a century, that Dr. Varona came to be one of the best loved and most influential figures of Cuba. His courses in psychology, philosophy, and sociology were distinguished and had a profound effect upon the generations of students who attended them.

November 20 was declared a day of national mourning.



ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA

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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

THE AMERICAS



"UNITED IN SPIRIT AND PURPOSE
THEY CANNOT BE DISAPPOINTED OF
THEIR PEACEFUL DESTINY"

MARCH

1934

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COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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UNION OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS



BULLETIN

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

L. S. ROWE
Director General

E. GIL BORGES
Assistant Director

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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cannot be disappointed of their peaceful destiny"**

(Woodrow Wilson, December 7, 1915.)

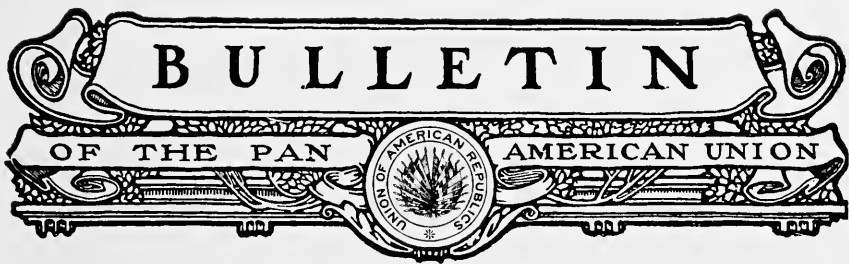
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III



VISTA THROUGH ENTRANCE TO PAN AMERICAN UNION.

The bronze grill is one of the details reminiscent of Latin America and Spain which characterize the building of the Pan American Union in Washington.



VOL. LXVIII

MARCH 1934

No. 3

FOREWORD

THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

By L. S. ROWE, Ph.D., LL.D.

Director General of the Pan American Union

THE present special issue of the BULLETIN is published in anticipation of the fourth observance of Pan American Day, proposed by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and proclaimed by the governments of the twenty-one republics of the American Continent. In the interval that has elapsed since the day was last observed in April 1933 important forward strides have been made in every field of Pan American activity, and it is evident that with each passing year the Pan American movement is assuming larger significance.

The Foreword to this number of the BULLETIN is being written immediately following the close of the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo from December 3 to 26, 1933. This gathering of representatives of the American Republics has given a decided impetus to the whole Pan American movement, and the deliberations of the Conference, as well as the conclusions at which it arrived, have given further demonstration that Pan Americanism is a living, powerful influence, and a decisive factor in the international relations of the nations of the Western Hemisphere.

The Montevideo Conference was marked by a unity of spirit and a definite feeling of community of interest which will give to it a high place when compared with its predecessors. The fact that ten ministers of foreign affairs, one ex-president, and three ministers of finance were delegates to the Conference gives some idea of the kind of leadership which it enjoyed.

Before the Conference assembled, the question of major interest confronting the delegates was that of the reestablishment of peace in the Chaco. Although not on the agenda, the problem of bringing the Bolivian-Paraguayan controversy to an end entered the Conference at its opening session, because it was the one subject uppermost in the minds and thoughts of the delegates. In a ringing address at the inaugural session, the President of Uruguay, Dr. Gabriel Terra, made it clear that a conference which had as one of the most important chapters of its program the general topic of The Organization of Peace, not only could not ignore but would have to devote preferential attention to the peaceful and orderly settlement of this tragic conflict between two sister nations. "In my opinion," said President Terra, "the Conference that I have the honor to inaugurate today cannot leave unheard the clamor of American opinion that asks, that urges, that demands peace. I am confident that your appeal will not be made in vain and that your effective exhortation will influence public opinion in both nations."

The presence of this conflict between Bolivia and Paraguay served to accentuate to a marked degree the feeling of unity of the American Republics. There was noticeable throughout the Conference not only the desire to bring the conflict to an end but also a deep and abiding sense of responsibility for the maintenance of the peace of the western world. This may be said to have been the outstanding characteristic of the Conference, as well as its most inspiring aspect.

The fact that the League of Nations had sent a special commission to the Chaco made it desirable that the Conference should without delay establish contact with the commission and cooperate with it in every possible way. It was thus possible to bring about an armistice which was welcomed as a first step toward a definitive settlement.

Complementary to this action seeking to bring an end to an existing controversy were the steps taken by the Conference to strengthen the peace machinery of the continent, with a view to making such controversies impossible in the future. In this respect the Conference adopted first a resolution calling upon those Governments which have not yet done so to ratify or adhere to the international treaties, conventions, and agreements which have been already negotiated, and which are intended to insure the reign of peace in the relations between American countries and with all the nations of the world. These instruments include the Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts, signed at the Fifth International Conference of American States at Santiago in 1923; the Inter-American Convention on Conciliation, and the Inter-American Arbitration Treaty, both signed at Washington in 1929; the Briand-Kellogg Treaty, signed at Paris in 1928; and the Antiwar Treaty, of Argentine initiative, of 1933. As emphasized in the discussions, and as set forth in the preamble of the resolu-

tion, the acceptance of these treaties by all countries would afford the necessary machinery for the settlement of any international controversy that might arise.

The Conference further adopted an additional protocol to the General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation of 1929, whereby a permanent character is given to the Commissions of Investigation and Conciliation provided for in that convention. The protocol stipulates that the signatory governments shall by bilateral agreement, effected through an exchange of notes, designate the two members who shall serve on each Commission of Investigation and Conciliation, the fifth member to be appointed through the intermediary of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. This protocol is intended, through the creation of the Permanent Commissions of Investigation and Conciliation, to obviate a defect which has heretofore existed, in that the commissions are not appointed until after a controversy has arisen.

In addition to the foregoing questions of the reestablishment and the maintenance of the peace of the continent, it was evident early in the sessions that the interest and attention of the delegates would be centered upon two additional problems of outstanding importance: (1) To give Pan Americanism an economic content, through emphasis of the fact that the American Republics must spare no effort to remove the barriers to trade which now exist and that this involved the obligation to reduce tariffs, abolish quota systems, and other restrictions of a similar nature; and (2) to establish upon firm foundations the doctrine of the equality of States, with its ancillary declaration against the intervention of one State in the internal affairs of another. Around these two questions the most important discussions centered, and with reference to them the most important decisions of the Conference were made.

Given the present world situation and the measures for national economic recovery which are now engaging the attention of so many countries, it was obvious that no immediate definite agreements could be reached on any of the financial and economic topics of the program. It was equally apparent to all the delegates, however, that the reestablishment of domestic prosperity on a firm and lasting basis depended upon a policy of international economic cooperation. Accordingly, the Conference laid down a broad program of economic, commercial, and tariff policy, to be pursued by the Governments of the American Republics in their future relations with one another and with other nations of the world. Briefly summarized, this declaration, formulated and introduced by the Secretary of State of the United States, provides as follows: (1) The Governments of the American Republics undertake to reduce high trade barriers through the negotiation of comprehensive, bilateral reciprocity treaties based

upon mutual concessions; (2) the governments of the American Republics subscribe, and call upon other governments of the world to subscribe to the policy, through simultaneous action of the principal nations, of gradually reducing tariffs and other barriers, this policy to be achieved through the simultaneous initiation of negotiations for the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral agreements for the removal of prohibitions and restrictions and for the reduction of tariff rates to a moderate level; (3) the Governments of the American Republics will revive and revise the Convention of 1927, or negotiate a new Convention for the Abolition of Import and Export Prohibitions and Restrictions; (4) the subscribing Governments declare that the principle of equality of treatment stands as the basis of all acceptable commercial policy, and they undertake that whatever agreements they enter into shall include the most-favored-nation clause in its unconditional and unrestricted form.

The Conference made provision for further measures of economic and financial cooperation by adopting a resolution providing for the convening of the Third Pan American Financial Conference at Santiago, Chile, and of a Pan American Commercial Conference, to be held at Buenos Aires immediately following the Santiago conference.

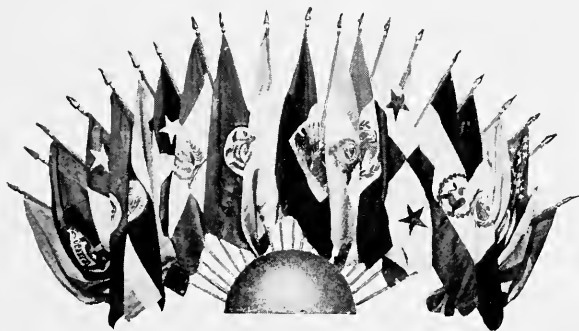
Major interest of the delegates revolved also around the consideration of the topic relating to the rights and duties of states. On this question, which had remained pending from the Sixth Conference at Habana, where it was impossible to arrive at any agreement, the Conference adopted a convention which expressly declares that "No state has the right to intervene in the internal or external affairs of another." Equally as significant as the convention itself was the statement of the Secretary of State of the United States in the discussion on this project, when he declared: "I feel safe in undertaking to say that under our support of the general principle of nonintervention as has been suggested, no Government need fear any intervention on the part of the United States under the Roosevelt administration." Just after the close of the Conference President Roosevelt himself said, in speaking before the Woodrow Wilson Foundation on December 28, 1933, "The definite policy of the United States from now on is one opposed to armed intervention."

The decisions of the Conference referred to above are those which gave rise to the greatest discussion and commanded the greatest interest. In addition, however, the Conference adopted a series of resolutions which represent an important contribution to the Pan American movement and point the direction that the Pan American program will take during the next few years. In the field of intellectual cooperation, social endeavor, communications, and transportation, the Conference approved resolutions and laid down recommendations of far-reaching significance. In the field of codification of

international law, in addition to the convention on the rights and duties of states, the Conference adopted a number of other conventions, among them one on nationality, another on political asylum, and a third on extradition. Furthermore, a comprehensive plan for carrying on the work of codification in the future was also evolved and approved. A convention on the nationality of women was also signed, embodying the principle that there shall be no distinction based on sex as regards nationality, in the legislation or in the practice of the signatory states.

Over and above all, however, it is desired to emphasize the fact that the Seventh International Conference of American States has given further evidence of the existence of a continental spirit among the Republics of the Western Hemisphere. Confronted by important problems of a political and economic character, the delegates gathered together at Montevideo were clearly influenced by the conviction that these problems could be solved only by a spirit of mutual helpfulness and cooperation, and that the welfare of each of the nations of the continent was dependent upon the progress and prosperity of all.

MONTevideo, December 30, 1933.



AMERICA AND INTERNATIONAL LAW

By ANTONIO S. DE BUSTAMANTE

President of the Sixth International Conference of American States; Judge of the Permanent Court of International Justice at The Hague; Charter Member and Member of the Governing Board of the American Institute of International Law; Member of the "Institut de Droit International"; President of the Cuban Society of International Law, etc.

THE discovery of the new world at the close of the fifteenth century contributed greatly to the rise and development of public international law during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; and the emancipation of the English colonies in America during the eighteenth century and those of Spain, Portugal and France during the nineteenth likewise was a most important factor in the progress of its theory and practice. Rightly has it been said that international law is the vocation of the American continent.

Since we are to limit ourselves in this essay to some of the reforms and some of the progress in the field of international law which the world owes to America, we shall begin by referring to the official approval of the principle of the juridical equality of states and to the outstanding practical applications of this policy. The American Institute of International Law, while doing preparatory work for the International Conferences of American States, restated in 1924 this fundamental principle which it had already asserted on January 6, 1916, in its Declaration of the Rights and Duties of Nations: "Every nation is in law and before the law the equal of every other nation belonging to the society of nations, and all nations have the right to claim and, according to the Declaration of Independence of the United States, 'to assume, among the Powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them.'" In the definite project of a convention on "Nations" which the institute submitted to the Pan American Union in 1925 for the consideration of the International Commission of Jurists at its meeting in Rio de Janeiro, article 2 read as follows: "Nations are legally equal. The rights of each do not depend upon the power at its command to insure their exercise. Nations enjoy equal rights and equal capacity to exercise them." The Rio de Janeiro Commission of Jurists, composed of members officially appointed by all the American Republics, gave to this article, in its 1927 meeting, an even more radical form, if such a thing was possible: "States are legally equal; enjoy equal rights and have equal capacity to exercise

them. The rights of each State do not depend upon the power at its command to insure their exercise but only upon the fact of their existence as personalities in international law."

The fact that all the nations of America are Republics and entered international life under similar political circumstances at more or less the same period has contributed to the nonexistence among them of questions of hierarchy, rank, precedence, or other analogous matters which have caused so much trouble in the international life of Europe. Not even the diplomatic language has created difficulties. Although in 18 of the 21 Republics of the New World Spanish is the official language, in the acts, conventions, and other documents of the Pan American conferences the languages of the remaining three—English, French, and Portuguese—are used simultaneously with Spanish, thus removing the idea of a diplomatic language and reaffirming in this external manifestation the idea and the principle of equality.

For the same purpose and disregarding the European practice of naming the contracting parties to a collective agreement in alphabetical order, thus always placing some ahead of others, the Pan American conferences have introduced the custom of drawing lots among the nations represented to determine the order of precedence in the preliminary enumeration and in the signature of the treaties as well as in the seating of the delegations. In this manner the order of precedence among the 21 countries varies from conference to conference. This practice was recommended for use in Europe, although without success, by a resolution of the Congress of Vienna in 1815. It may be said that in the practical manifestations of international equality America has taken as its motto the opinion of the illustrious Brazilian delegate, Ruy Barbosa, expressed at the Second Peace Conference at The Hague in 1907: "Even if it so desires, no state can renounce this right, which affects the sovereignty and, therefore, the independence of nations in their mutual relations."

Without discussing in detail the principle of non-intervention, which had its inception in the message of President Monroe to the United States Congress on December 2, 1823; which has been ratified by President Franklin D. Roosevelt; and which the Sixth and Seventh International Conferences of American States have striven to convert into a definite and permanent rule of international law, we must mention a principle which is intimately connected with that of non-intervention and which is an important and powerful factor in the origin of juridical international persons: i.e., the principle according to which the will of the people is a legitimate cause for the formation of a state. This policy, enunciated at the very beginning of the life of the United States and carried into effect at the birth of the other American Republics was proclaimed a universal doctrine by President Wilson in his message to Congress on January 8, 1918, when he included among the

bases for a possible peace "a free, open minded, and absolutely impartial adjustment of all colonial claims, based upon a strict observance of the principle that in determining all such questions of sovereignty the interests of the populations concerned must have equal weight with the equitable claims of the Governments whose title is to be determined." More explicit and clear in his address at Mount Vernon on July 4, 1918, he established among the conditions for peace [after the World War] "the settlement of every question, whether of territory, of sovereignty, of economic arrangement, or of political relationship, upon the basis of the free acceptance of that settlement by the people immediately concerned, and not upon the basis of the material interest or advantage of any other nation or people which may desire a different settlement for the sake of its own exterior influence or mastery."

Another American policy intimately connected in its essence with the preceding is that which deals with the recognition of *de facto* governments by the other nations of this continent. It was initiated by the United States, which began by proclaiming through Thomas Jefferson, when Secretary of State, on December 30, 1792, that "we certainly cannot deny to other nations that principle whereon our own Government is founded, that every nation has a right to govern itself internally under what forms it pleases, and to change these forms at its own will." Even more emphatic yet, if such a thing was possible, was President Pierce's message to Congress on May 15, 1856, affirming that "it is the established policy of the United States to recognize all governments without question of their source or their organization, or of the means by which the governing persons attain their power, provided there be a government *de facto* accepted by the people of the country" Notwithstanding the departures from this policy made by Secretary of State Seward in 1861 and President Wilson in 1913, Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of State, in an address delivered in New York before the Council of Foreign Relations on February 6, 1931, stated the following: "As soon as it was reported to us, through our diplomatic representatives, that the new governments in Bolivia, Peru, Argentina, Brazil, and Panama were in control of the administrative machinery of the state, with the apparent general acquiescence of their people, and that they were willing and apparently able to discharge their international and conventional obligations, they were recognized by our Government." Despite the Tobar Doctrine and some Central American conventions, two brilliant publicists, Señor Anderson, of Costa Rica, and Señor Podestá Costa, of Argentina, have lent the force of their authority and reasoning to the support of this right of *de facto* governments. The American Institute of International Law did likewise in the projects which it discussed and approved for submission to the International Commission of Jurists in 1927, and the latter, in its

draft of a convention on States, included an article which reads as follows: "A government should always be recognized which meets the following conditions: 1, Effective authority with the probability of establishment and consolidation, whose commands are obeyed by the people especially in the matters of taxation and military service; 2, the capacity to fulfill its preexisting international obligations, to contract new obligations, and to respect the duties established by international law."

In later years there has evolved in America a new doctrine with respect to recognition, known as the Estrada Doctrine, because it was supported by Señor Don Genaro Estrada, Mexican Secretary of Foreign Relations, in a declaration which he made to the press on September 30, 1930. The Mexican Government, he said, does not grant recognition, since it considers such a course "an insulting practice and one which, in addition to the fact that it offends the sovereignty of other nations, implies that judgment of some sort may be passed upon the internal affairs of those nations by other governments, inasmuch as the latter assume, in effect, an attitude of criticism, when they decide, favorably or unfavorably, as to the legal qualifications of foreign régimes." "Therefore," he continued, "the Government of Mexico confines itself to the maintenance or withdrawal, as it may deem advisable, of its diplomatic agents, and to the continued acceptance, also when it may deem advisable, of such similar accredited diplomatic agents as the respective nations may have in Mexico; and in so doing it does not pronounce judgment, either precipitately or *a posteriori*, regarding the right of foreign nations to accept, maintain, or replace their governments or authorities."

One of the most important and striking forward steps taken by America in the field of international law is the work of codification undertaken by the International Conferences of American States since 1889, a work which has precedents of great importance in the recommendations and resolutions of other American regional congresses since the one which met in 1826 at the invitation of the immortal Bolívar. Acting in the domain of public international law, the First International Conference of American States in 1889-90 established the Commercial Bureau of the American Republics, to which we refer later, and adopted recommendations on the right of conquest, international claims, and the navigation of international rivers, as well as an arbitration treaty.

The Second International Conference of American States, held in Mexico in 1902, besides extending the field of action of the International Bureau of the American Republics, approved three important treaties, on claims for pecuniary loss or damage, on compulsory arbitration, and on the codification of international law. The Third Conference, which took place in Rio de Janeiro in 1906, again reorganized

the Bureau and created for purposes of codification an International Commission of Jurists which was to prepare a draft of a code of public international law and one of private international law. The Fourth Conference, inaugurated in Buenos Aires on July 12, 1910, reorganized the Bureau, changing its name to Pan American Union, and modified the convention on pecuniary claims and the settlement by arbitration of the questions to which they give rise. The Fifth, whose meeting in Santiago, Chile, was delayed until 1923 because of the World War and its consequences, adopted a resolution on international electrical communications and approved the important Gondra Treaty to avoid or prevent conflicts between the American states; and the Sixth, held at Habana in 1928, has to its credit in this field eight conventions, relative to the Pan American Union, treaties, diplomatic officers, consular agents, maritime neutrality, commercial aviation, asylum, and the rights and duties of States in the event of civil strife.

In regard to private international law the First Conference recommended the study of the then recent Montevideo treaties [on international civil law, international commercial law, and the law of procedure] for adoption with the proper amendments. The Second proclaimed the civil equality of citizens and aliens, a principle which was to be confirmed by the Sixth, regulated the legal status of naturalized citizens who keep the citizenship of their country of origin, and adopted a convention on extradition. The Sixth Conference accepted a Code of Private International Law¹ consisting of 437 articles and dealing with international, civil, commercial, and penal law, and the international law of procedure. The convention which accepted the code and regulated adherence to it has been ratified up to date by the following 15 states: Brazil, Bolivia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Chile, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, the Dominican Republic, and Venezuela. The joint area of these 15 countries is 15,048,465 square kilometers, or one and a half times that of Europe, and their population exceeds 68 million inhabitants.

All these conferences have also taken action in other important problems in the fields of inter-American economics, commerce, social welfare, sanitation and public health, education, uniform legal procedure and the administration of justice. Born of peace and not of armed strife, initiated and developed in an atmosphere of conciliation and friendship, called originally to improve commercial relations and foster economic progress and expanding later to embrace all the phases of international legislative activity without limit as to their

¹ By an agreement of the conference this code is officially known as the "Bustamante Code" in honor of Dr. Antonio S. de Bustamante, the eminent Cuban jurist and author of this article, who originally drafted it.—EDITOR.

past or future work, these conferences are perhaps the most perfect expression of an international legislative power. Their resolutions and the treaties which they negotiate are not definitive or binding, for the former are subject to veto and the latter to the ratification of the interested nations. This to us must be the essential quality of any international legislative power, which should always act *ad referendum*, but which is for that reason none the less efficient or important.

Aside from these conferences but in the majority of cases on their initiative or with their cooperation and approval, other special Pan American Conferences have made for progress in this part of the world in such important matters as an international sanitary code, trade marks and patents, and arbitration.

Arbitration is in effect one of the great contributions of America to the progress and stability of international law throughout the world. On February 9, 1790, during the second session of the First United States Congress under the Constitution, President Washington recommended to the Senate that all questions between his country and other nations should be speedily and amicably settled. Consequently the United States Senate advised on March 12 of that same year that a commission on which the United States and Great Britain would be represented should decide the dispute over the boundary line with Canada, a provision to this effect being incorporated in the Jay Treaty, signed November 19, 1794.

Hardly had independent nations been set up in South America when they followed the same path. In 1828 Argentina and Brazil signed a treaty, several times renewed, providing for arbitration. The same was done by Colombia and Peru in article 19, paragraph 2, of the treaty signed at Guayaquil on September 22, 1829. And not to multiply these references, suffice it to remember that a great international arbitration case, that of the famous *Alabama* claims, provided for in the treaty signed between Great Britain and the United States on May 8, 1871, and decided at Geneva on September 14, 1872, has contributed more than any other to the success and world-wide popularity of arbitration.

America gave another example to humanity which must also be mentioned. Article 34 of the Brazilian Constitution of February 24, 1891, provided that Congress had the right to authorize the Executive to declare war only when arbitration had failed or could not be arranged. Two other constitutions adopted prior to that of Brazil may also be cited (the Ecuadorean Constitution of March 31, 1878, article 116; and that of the Dominican Republic of November 15, 1887, article 101), as well as a later one, that of Venezuela of June 12, 1893, all of which more or less fully provided for arbitration.

From constitutions and bilateral treaties the arbitration movement in America passed on to multilateral treaties, as we have already noted when referring to the International Conferences of American States. The Habana Conference unanimously adopted the following resolution: "1. That the American Republics adopt obligatory arbitration as the means which they will employ for the pacific solution of their international differences of a juridical character. 2. That the American Republics will meet in Washington within the period of one year in a conference of conciliation and arbitration to give conventional form to the realization of this principle, with the minimum exceptions which they may consider indispensable to safeguard the independence and sovereignty of the states, as well as matters of a domestic concern, and to the exclusion also of matters involving the interest or referring to the action of a state not party to the convention." Pursuant to this resolution, the Conference on Conciliation and Arbitration met in Washington on December 10, 1928, and on January 5, 1929, adopted a convention providing, in its first article, that the contracting parties "bind themselves to submit to arbitration all differences of an international character which have arisen or may arise between them by virtue of a claim of right made by one against the other under treaty or otherwise, which it has not been possible to adjust by diplomacy and which are juridical in their nature by reason of being susceptible of decision by the application of the principles of law." Included among questions of a juridical character are: "(a) The interpretation of a treaty; (b) any question of international law; (c) the existence of any fact which, if established, would constitute a breach of an international obligation; (d) the nature and extent of the reparation to be made for the breach of an international obligation."

It is also to the credit of America to have organized and operated for a time the first permanent international court of justice. We refer to the Central American Court of Justice, which was created by five republics of this continent, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and El Salvador, by the treaty signed at Washington on December 20, 1907, and which was competent to decide certain international controversies. Unfortunately, through the influence of political events, it went out of existence when the term for which the treaty had established it expired without being extended.

We refrain from mentioning, for lack of space, other questions and problems in which positive international law gained luster through the action of the nations of America, and pass on to refer to one of the most excellent, lasting, and stable results of the International Conferences of American States: the Pan American Union which, through the brilliant, fruitful, and incessant labors of its directors,

has always done excellent work and has increased day by day its authority, its sphere of action, and its prestige. It may be said to be the center of all American activity in matters related to international law and international administrative and legal relations. Without being the scene of the conflicts of political interests which abound in the League of Nations, it controls and directs, outside of the political sphere, the international development of America.

Aside from these facts and this positive legislation America has made a notable and productive contribution to the scientific development of international law. From North to South it is carefully studied in the universities; from North to South highly scientific books and monographs are frequently published, and later consulted and cited the world over. This study is another factor which America adds to the theoretical and practical development of international law, wherein lies the real secret and stimulus to peace and justice, two inseparable aspirations of which civilization and humanity are so greatly in need.



CURRENT ECONOMIC PROBLEMS IN LATIN AMERICA

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THE range of current economic problems in Latin America, as in other world areas, is as wide as the entire economic structure in any country, but the basic question at the present time, that which runs through and in a sense unites all current problems, is the attempt to bring about recovery from the effects of the last 4 years of depression.

Whether the problem concerns trade or finance, be it foreign or domestic in its aspects, or whether it is immediate or long range in nature, it should be interpreted in the light of the present struggle for national economic rehabilitation in the various countries.

The present article reviews briefly a few important current Latin and Pan American economic problems. Many others might have been chosen, but it is believed that the following are representative of the general situation at the present time.

SENSITIVITY OF LATIN AMERICAN NATIONS TO WORLD ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

The monetary economy of the nations of Latin America is closely involved with that of the world by reason of the fact that these Republics are primarily producers of raw materials, upon the sale of which in world markets they depend for the necessary foreign exchange to pay for nearly all the debit items, both visible and invisible, in their international payments. This point is most important, for a large degree of national welfare depends upon the success with which exports are marketed. Thus, in the case of Colombia, low prices for coffee, the principal export product, have the effect of disrupting the greater part of the national economy. Imports must be curtailed, Government revenues suffer, wages on coffee plantations decline, purchasing power is reduced, and so forth. The same is true in nearly all the Republics.

Given such a basic situation, what is its significance at the present time, and what is its relation to the recovery programs being undertaken in many countries?

It is hardly necessary here to trace the successive stages of the depression in Latin America, but with the decline in world prices for the raw materials produced by the Republics in that area of the world

it became necessary for active steps to be taken in an attempt to maintain international payments in balance. That the decline in world prices affected countries producing raw materials much more severely than more highly industrialized nations producing semimanufactures and finished goods, may be seen from the following: From the beginning of 1928 to the close of 1932 world prices for such important Latin American export commodities as sugar, coffee, copper, tin, and wheat, to mention but a few, declined on an average over 60 percent. In the United States, on the other hand, prices of semimanufactures and finished products, during the same period, declined only 38 and 27 percent, respectively.

To maintain the equilibrium in international payments, steps consisted at first of raising import barriers, in an effort to continue favorable trade surpluses by keeping import values at a lower level than that of exports. For a time this policy, plus the exportation of gold, seemed successful in achieving its purpose, and in maintaining currency parity to some degree. At length, however, depletion of gold stocks reached a dangerous point and had to be discontinued. Nations all over the world were also refusing imports by increasing tariffs and imposing quotas and other barriers, and the countries of Latin America, with their normal export markets disappearing, were forced to look elsewhere for the means to recovery.

This action looking toward recovery, which has developed rapidly within the last 18 months in Latin America, has consisted in the negotiation of a series of special bilateral commercial treaties, chiefly with neighboring Republics. These pacts were designed, in effect, to guarantee definite export markets in the face of constantly rising trade barriers. While inter-Latin American trade has never been large in volume, as is shown in the table ¹ on p. 169, the movement for treaty negotiation between Latin American nations is significant in that it represents a new phase in international commercial policy on the American Continent, which, as it develops, may have important future results.

The movement in Latin America to gain definite export markets by special treaty negotiation has also extended to agreements with the United States and with European countries.

As long as the Latin American Republics remain essentially producers of primary goods for world markets, their exports will be characterized by a high degree of sensivity to, together with a lack of control over, conditions in world markets. But the recovery measures now going forward, designed to reduce such sensivity and lack of control, are of importance and will be watched with great interest.

¹ Similar tables for each Latin American country are available in the mimeographed publication *Inter-American Commercial Relations*, issued by the Pan American Union.

THE UNITARY NATURE OF LATIN AMERICAN EXPORTS

Connected with the close relationship between the Latin American economy and general world conditions is the problem of the unitary nature of exports which exists in many of the Republics. In a recent year, for example, 71 percent of the total exports of Brazil consisted of coffee; meats and wool composed 65 percent of Uruguay's exports; Chilean nitrates and copper made up 84 percent of the total exports of that country; tin in Bolivia and coffee in El Salvador composed 73 and 90 percent, respectively, of the total exports of those Republics; in Colombia coffee made up 61 percent of all exports; 74 percent of the exports of Venezuela consisted of petroleum; and so forth.

In conjunction with a general dependence upon world markets, the added condition of lack of diversified exports has important significance, in that adverse world conditions in the industry upon which one country depends places the national economy at the control of external factors over which no appreciable influence can be exercised. This is particularly true at the present time. Practically all the economic ills which have succeeded one another in the various "one-crop" nations of Latin America may be traced to the collapse in the world markets for the particular commodity produced in each country. Unbalanced budgets, gold-standard suspension, exchange control, moratoria on debt service—all are directly related to the crisis in the single important industry.

In various nations at the present time attempts are being made to solve this problem of a unitary export condition. Two distinct methods would appear to be evolving: One in Chile, for example, is based upon the idea that nitrates in that Republic are still the most important export, despite their decline in relative importance on account of increasing manufacture of the synthetic product in other countries. Basing its international commercial policy on this idea, the Chilean Government, in negotiating compensation or clearing agreements with other nations for the release of blocked foreign credits, has succeeded in obtaining guarantees that the country whose blocked funds are being released shall at the same time purchase specified minimum amounts of Chilean nitrates.

The second type of action being taken to offset the economic hardship of a crippled dominant industry, is that of diversification. This movement has not yet had time to assume truly important proportions, but it is notable that in a number of countries various commodities, formerly imported, particularly foodstuffs, are now being produced domestically in increasing quantities. Cuba is one example of this diversification movement. Such products as butter, eggs, potatoes, and other foodstuffs, formerly imported from the United States, are now produced within the country.

Share of Latin America and the United States in the total foreign trade of the individual Latin American republics

Country	Imports from Latin America			Imports from the United States			Exports to Latin America			Exports to the United States		
	Per cent of total imports			Per cent of total imports			Percent of total exports			Percent of total exports		
	Average 1928-30	1931	1932	Average 1928-30	1931	1932	Average 1928-30	1931	1932	Average 1928-30	1931	1932
LATIN REPUBLICS IN NORTH AMERICA												
Mexico.....	0.7	0.4	0.5	68.3	66.7	63.8	2.9	2.4	3.9	62.7	61.1	65.3
Guatemala.....	3.5	4.4	3.7	56.5	53.1	50.0	1.1	1.3	.8	46.8	35.3	37.2
El Salvador.....	5.5	8.3	(1)	51.5	50.6	(1)	4.2	3.1	(1)	19.2	15.1	(1)
Honduras.....	3.9	(1)	(1)	77.1	71.5	76.1	2.7	(1)	(1)	74.8	72.4	67.5
Nicaragua.....	6.1	9.6	7.9	62.4	61.2	62.6	7.7	4.7	3.3	51.5	53.3	65.2
Costa Rica.....	2.7	7.3	7.8	49.2	47.1	52.6	3.1	2.6	3.4	28.2	20.8	39.2
Panama.....	3.7	4.3	3.5	65.4	60.4	61.2	1.2	.2	.1	93.3	85.0	93.2
Cuba.....	5.2	3.6	3.4	58.9	57.3	54.2	2.2	3.3	2.4	73.5	74.9	71.2
Dominican Republic.....	.6	1.2	.8	59.2	57.9	58.9	2.8	1.1	1.1	22.9	26.2	17.0
Haiti.....	.6	1.1	1.6	72.1	68.6	67.5	1.0	.1	(2)	8.3	8.1	8.1
SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS												
Argentina.....	10.4	13.9	12.5	23.9	15.8	13.5	6.7	3.8	3.6	9.1	6.1	3.4
Bolivia.....	22.6	25.6	31.3	30.7	25.2	24.0	3.7	3.9	5.4	11.1	5.0	3.6
Brazil.....	15.4	21.1	13.6	27.2	25.1	30.1	23.7	10.7	10.0	32.3	43.7	46.2
Chile.....	12.6	10.7	23.6	32.2	34.3	23.1	3.9	3.8	6.6	34.3	33.4	26.4
Colombia.....	4.5	4.8	3.2	45.2	41.8	42.1	3.9	.6	2.6	77.9	83.0	76.7
Ecuador.....	3.1	2.9	(1)	41.7	37.5	58.1	19.6	17.2	(1)	42.2	46.1	45.2
Paraguay.....	36.7	31.5	41.6	16.8	16.1	12.8	92.5	95.7	96.4	.2	.4	.5
Peru.....	5.5	7.2	9.1	41.0	40.8	29.1	24.7	18.7	17.0	32.5	36.4	17.3
Uruguay.....	21.1	27.7	34.2	28.7	19.2	10.0	18.4	12.7	9.9	9.9	4.5	4.1
Venezuela.....	.3	.7	.7	54.7	48.4	46.2	.7	.2	1.0	26.0	21.8	21.2

¹ Unavailable.

² Less than one tenth of 1 percent.

It is not to be assumed that diversification to some extent, on account of present conditions, is not taking place in all countries. It is, but Cuba is especially pointed out for the reason that the crop diversification taking place in that country seems to be of a permanent rather than a transitory nature.

FOREIGN CAPITAL IN LATIN AMERICA

It has been a noteworthy fact over a period of years in Latin America, despite large apparent favorable trade surpluses, importation of foreign capital, and the presence of other factors which would assist in maintaining equilibrium in international payments, that the currencies of a number of countries during those years dropped below parity.

A solution of this phenomenon appears to lie in the fact that foreign trade statistics, in showing such favorable results, do not reveal what amount of the total exports is made up of goods produced by firms controlled by foreign capital. Few or no data being available, it is impossible to determine accurately what such an amount might be.

In the cases of some countries, however, it is known to form an important proportion of total exports. This situation would therefore have a marked effect on the balances of international payments, as the net gain to the country of origin from exports by foreign entities would not be the full amounts shown in the trade statistics, but rather, only that portion left with the country by foreign concerns in the form of wages, taxes, and certain other items, plus the value of imports brought into the country for the use of such organizations.

As an example of this situation, it may be noted that Venezuelan foreign trade statistics show a favorable balance each year of many millions of bolívares. As mentioned above, however, approximately 75 percent of the total exports of Venezuela consists of petroleum. The petroleum industry in Venezuela is almost entirely controlled by foreign capital. This, of course, is not revealed in the trade statistics, with the result that what might appear to be a strongly favorable trade balance could really have been an unfavorable balance, taking into consideration the actual net returns received from exports by Venezuelans.

The significance of this situation at the present time is that during the economic strain of the past few years it has been natural to find that Latin American countries, like other nations, have been taking measures to protect their domestic position. This has of course had an effect upon foreign capital, and has raised a number of problems.

The above-mentioned importance of the exports of foreign firms in the balances of international payments of several countries has provided one reason for the imposition of measures officially to control operations in foreign exchange. As a result of such exchange control, foreign entities have found themselves with large sums blocked in various countries which could not be released.

Such sums have continued to increase in volume, and have thus become a constantly growing threat to even the artificial maintenance of currency parity on the exchange market. Finally, in some countries, steps have been taken to release such blocked foreign funds, either through clearing or compensation agreements with interests in countries whose nationals' funds were frozen, or by special arrangements for the release of blocked currencies over a period of years, or by other action. Examples of such steps include agreements between the Argentine Government and interests in Great Britain and the United States to release funds blocked in Argentina; Chilean compensation agreements with half a dozen European nations; and so forth.

Another feature of current problems of foreign capital in Latin America may be noted, that of the relations between such capital and domestic capital.

On account of the fact that Latin American countries have not been, and, generally speaking, still are not, in an advanced stage of development along industrial or financial lines, as compared with European countries or the United States, it is natural that, domestic capital not being available, foreign capital should have been required and imported for the construction and development of railroads, highways, public utilities, communication facilities, various types of industrial plants, and so forth. The result of this lack of domestic capital, however, has been that throughout Latin America foreign capital now controls the largest portion of such important industrial enterprises as railroads, steamship lines, telegraph and telephone systems, electric light and power plants, street-car lines, mines, meat-packing plants, and so forth.

During the period of the present depression, the steps taken by Latin American Governments to bring about recovery have been, generally speaking, nationalistic in character. This type of nationalistic action has, moreover, been extended to more than mere protection of domestic industries by the erection of barriers to imports from foreign countries, or financial aid or special forms of credit to assist various domestic groups. In addition, rather, the feeling has been growing in a number of countries that national interests should play a more important part in those industries now largely in foreign hands.

For this to be accomplished, however, domestic capital is necessary. And some nations feel that in order to create this required domestic capital means must be found to produce local capital saving and accumulation more rapidly than at present. It is felt that under the existing financial relationships with foreign capital interests no domestic capital accumulation can take place, except over a period of many years, that will be sufficient to enable domestic entities to enter those fields now dominated by foreign capital.

In response to this nationalistic feeling, some countries, in the development of their domestic recovery programs, appear to be contemplating such action toward foreign interests as will very shortly place national entities upon a competitive plane with the foreign groups.

The viewpoint of these foreign groups, on the other hand, is that in return for the profits which they have taken out of various countries, they have, over a period of years, invested a large amount of capital and played an important part in the development of the economic and financial life of the countries.

Solution of the problem of the future relations between foreign and domestic capital in Latin America, therefore, would seem to revolve around reaching such a plan as will in some degree satisfy nationalistic

aspirations for a greater domestic participation in various capital industries and at the same time not inequitably affect the legitimate interests of the foreign groups.

FOREIGN DEBTS AND GOVERNMENTAL FISCAL PROBLEMS

This problem, particularly acute at present on account of the number of external obligations on which various Latin American governmental entities have suspended interest and/or sinking-fund payments, may be considered from several angles.

There is first the question of the governmental revenue system in most Latin American countries in relation to the service on public debts and other expenditures. It is an almost universal custom in Latin America, a heritage from colonial days, for governments to depend for revenues upon customs duties more than on any other single source of income. Thus, in over half the Republics customs duties provide 50 percent or more of the total governmental income. While this situation would not be particularly noticeable under ordinary circumstances, it becomes highly important when foreign trade begins to decline. The question of the tariff in relation to foreign trade in Latin America is discussed later in these pages, and it is sufficient to note here how closely the various factors in the situation are linked, and the effect of this relationship on the payment of debt service.

The Republics as a whole are greatly dependent upon export trade, usually of one or two commodities; decline in exports curtails export taxes where they exist, as well as reducing purchasing power (imports), thus decreasing volume of import taxes; with principal items of income curtailed, governments are forced to suspend debt payments in order to maintain vital domestic services. There are other factors, of course, but those are the basic points.

Going further into governmental finances in Latin America in their relation to foreign debts and payment thereon, the question arises of the productivity of foreign loans in bringing about such internal development as to yield sufficient revenues to enable the loans to become self-liquidating. On the other hand, there is the question of what happens when these loans are not productive to such a degree.

From the viewpoint of the holder of the bond of a foreign governmental entity, a loan is productive when its proceeds are so utilized as to yield a sufficient return to pay the interest upon it, and gradually amortize it. From the viewpoint of the borrowing government, a loan to be productive should, over and above its self-liquidating character, prove of intrinsic value in the internal development of the particular nation, State, or municipality concerned.

It is not essential here to attempt to consider how many Latin American foreign loans have or have not been "productive." The point is rather that service charges on foreign loans which have not been economically sound or productive come to be a drain on governmental finances for which no adequate return may be seen, and as such produce a condition which is either unsound for governmental finances while interest and amortization payments are being maintained, or unjust to thousands of individual foreign bondholders when these payments are not being made.

Another problem in the relation between foreign debts and governmental fiscal problems in Latin America which may be mentioned is the degree of rigidity imposed upon taxation structures by the terms of foreign loan contracts. By such contracts governments usually have hypothecated the proceeds of certain taxes for the service of the external loans, in addition to a general pledge to meet the interest and amortization payments.

It is true that at the present time, while debt service is in suspense in a number of countries, this question has not the same practical importance that it has in normal periods. The fact remains, however, that as long as certain definite governmental revenues are pledged for debt service, the entire taxation system of a government becomes rigid to the degree that such special hypothecation of revenues has occurred. This rigidity, in addition, will last during the entire life of the particular foreign loan concerned, often as long as thirty or forty years. As it is obviously impractical for governments to deal with thousands of individual holders of its bonds, scattered throughout the world, it becomes very difficult for these governments to make the changes in their taxation systems which are demanded by the shifting economic and social trends within the country. This question will undoubtedly assume much greater importance than it has at present when more normal conditions enable Latin American governments to make arrangements for resumption of payments on their foreign obligations.

When the time arrives for such arrangements to be made the problem of "capacity to pay" will doubtlessly loom as an important consideration. In future years, however, Latin American republics, as debtors on international account, will continue to require foreign capital for legitimate economic needs. At such time, with the experience gained in the past few years, the important problem will be "capacity to borrow", for the protection both of borrowers that the mistakes of the past may not be repeated and of lenders that their investments may be adequately protected. That in the past the measurements of "capacity to pay" were not adequate or were misinterpreted now appears obvious. The problem of importance in

the future regarding foreign debts and related questions, therefore, would seem to be the devising of new and improved standards of "capacity to borrow" for the mutual protection of both borrowers and lenders.

TARIFFS, INDUSTRIALIZATION, AND BALANCES OF INTERNATIONAL PAYMENTS

At the risk of generalizations regarding as large and diversified a group of nations as the twenty republics of Latin America, it may nevertheless be said that in the long run the international payments of these countries can only be balanced by their exports to world markets. From the foreign exchange created by the sales of such exports must come the means to pay not only for imports and to meet the services on foreign obligations, both public and private, but also for such items as the development and maintenance of whatever degree of domestic industrialization may take place.

Where tariffs have been raised to protect and develop domestic industries, thus curtailing imports, these tariffs have automatically changed from revenue producing (the general type in Latin America) to protective, with the consequent effect of reducing an important source of governmental income.

Further, with revenues decreased on account of less income from import duties, it becomes necessary for the Government to tax, amongst other new sources of income, the industries protected by the tariff erected for their development. The question therefore arises as to the economic effects of such a spread of industrialism, which must be protected from foreign competition by a high tariff, and subsequently taxed to provide the Government with the revenue lost on account of these protective tariffs. From the viewpoint of the consuming public, the problem is presented of the additional burden of the higher prices for industrial products which have resulted from a protective tariff for the development of domestic industries.

It must be recalled, however, that one of the reasons underlying the protection of domestic industrial growth in various Latin American countries has been the desire to lessen what amounted to an almost complete dependence upon foreign goods in many lines. It was felt that by stimulating domestic production and reducing imports a more favorable position would be created in the balances of international payments of the country. This was justified economically, especially in those countries where the world markets for the one or two important export commodities appeared to be limited or declining, and where it was necessary for the proceeds from the sales of such commodities in foreign countries, to cover all, or nearly all, the debit items in the international balances.

Another problem arises here, however. It is in those Latin American countries where the greatest industrial growth has taken place (to mention but Brazil, Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay) that there is an insufficient or undeveloped amount of the coal, fuel oil, and hydroelectric power which have made for success in the present highly industrialized areas of the world. This deficiency has made it necessary in various Latin American nations for such commodities as coal and fuel oil to be imported to provide the power for industrial development. The importation of these commodities has placed a debit item in the balances of international payments, and to this extent has tended to nullify the economic gains of domestic industrial development.

In addition, with the facilities for the manufacture of such capital equipment as heavy machinery and tools not available, it has also been necessary to import large quantities of these, and thus place another debit charge against the international balances.

In brief, then, the problem of tariffs, industrialization, and the balances of international payments in Latin America would appear to revolve around the effects on governmental finances of a protective rather than a revenue tariff; the necessary taxation of domestic industry as a result of the foregoing; the effects on prices to consumers of industrially produced goods of such taxation and tariff protection; effects on the balances of international payments of the development of industrialism, and as a consequence, the effect on the national economy as a whole.

NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL RECOVERY IN PAN AMERICA

Mention was made at the beginning of this article of the fact that recovery from the effects of the last four years of depression on the American Continent was the central theme in all the economic problems now facing the twenty one republics. The fact was also mentioned, however, that recovery measures adopted thus far, with the exception of the negotiation of bilateral commercial reciprocity treaties, have been almost entirely nationalistic in aspect. (The bilateral pacts may even, in a sense, be described as nationalistic.)

This nationalistic aspect of recovery measures would seem at the outset to be in direct conflict with any measures which may or could be taken for general inter-American economic concord. If, however, the attitude toward recovery on the American Continent recently enunciated by the Secretary of State of the United States at the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo be representative of continental feeling on the subject, then the wave of apparent nationalism sweeping over the American Republics may be viewed in a different light.

The Secretary of State admitted that a number of the nations of America were embarking upon courses for recovery which in their immediate aspects and results were perforce nationalistic, but he asked the delegates of the other American Republics to join with him in a general declaration in favor of lower barriers to international trade. In the meantime, by the negotiation of bilateral trade pacts, the groundwork would be laid for a later and more general extension of mutual trade concessions, at such time as national recovery programs would have been advanced to a point to allow domestic recovery gains to be joined with similar gains in many other nations.

In the above sense, the conflict between national and international recovery on the American Continent is not as strong as appears at first glance. Viewed in the above light, the various nationalistic programs for economic recovery in Pan America represent a passing phase of emergency measures designed as readjustments to temporary conditions, rather than permanent policies, and as such, with the return of normal conditions, may presage an eventual wider Pan American economic collaboration.



INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION IN THE AMERICAS

THE ACTION OF THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

IT HAS long been recognized that friendship between nations depends to a large extent on the kind and amount of their knowledge of each other. For just as geographic boundaries may be decided by the exchange of views between neighboring nations, so intangible frontiers are removed by the exchange of ideas and the community of interests between the citizens of one country and those of others.

The nations in the Western Hemisphere have always shown a special interest in promoting intellectual intercourse as a means of spiritual accord. In all the International Conferences of American States held since 1889 this ideal has been cordially approved by the delegates, resolutions furthering it have been drafted, and measures taken which are gradually producing the desired results. Nor have these efforts been confined to the general conferences, for many other gatherings dealing with special subjects, such as law, medicine, and education, have been held, several prior to 1889.

One of the most important chapters of the program of the Seventh International Conference of American States, which met last December in Montevideo, Uruguay, was that concerned with intellectual cooperation. The various topics included therein were studied and discussed with great care by the committee in charge and various resolutions were approved by the conference invoking the assistance of many agents, including the radio. Furthermore, a convention on the teaching of history was signed.

A few months ago, during the meeting of the Fourth Congress of American History in Buenos Aires, Dr. Alfredo Colmo expressed the following ideas with respect to this important subject:

In spite of the activities of those who weaken history with extravagant over- or under-statements, I consider that it bears the same relation to nations as blood does to individuals—it is the life-giving fluid. While it may be less organic, more spiritualized, it is not therefore any the less essential. And insofar as it has a tendency to invigorate and elevate the feeling and the sense of continuity, insofar as it expresses in concrete form the idea of the fatherland to each member individually of our entire community, the training it gives is more than knowledge: it becomes a complete education, soaring to the plane of a noble aspiration, of a well-rounded ideal.

Therefore, since history tries to be peace and cooperation, it should begin by being the truth. And so history textbooks in which facts are made over to exalt narrow nationalism to the disadvantage of other countries—as happens with rather distressing frequency—are conspirators against these cardinal principles. We can never call ourselves brothers, as we do, while we continue to revile our neighbors. We shall never be able to realize our task of constructive approximation if we continue to arouse bitterness and to disguise or hide the truth.

The Convention on the Teaching of History, the text of which is given herewith, will no doubt be most useful in realizing the constructive task of fostering continental accord among the nations of America:

The Governments represented in the Seventh International Conference of American States, considering:

That it is necessary to complement the political and juridical organization of peace with the moral disarmament of peoples, by means of the revision of textbooks in use in the several countries;

That the need of effecting this corrective labor has been recognized by the Pan American Scientific Congress of Lima (1924), the National History Congress of Montevideo (1928), the Congress of History of Buenos Aires (1929), the Congress of History of Bogotá (1930), the Second National History Congress of Rio de Janeiro (1931), the American University Congress of Montevideo (1931), and by the adoption of measures in this respect by several American Governments; and that the United States of Brazil and the Argentine and Uruguayan Republics evidencing their deep desire for international peace and understanding have recently subscribed to agreements for the revision of their textbooks of History and Geography;

Have appointed as their plenipotentiaries: . . .

Who, after having exchanged their full powers which were found in good and proper form, have agreed to the following:

ARTICLE 1

To revise the textbooks adopted for instruction in their respective countries, with the object of eliminating from them whatever might tend to arouse in the immature mind of youth aversion to any American country.

ARTICLE 2

To review periodically the textbooks adopted for instruction on the several subjects, in order to harmonize them with most recent statistical and general information, so that they shall convey the most accurate data respecting the wealth and productive capacity of the American Republics.

ARTICLE 3

To found an "Institute for the Teaching of History" of the American Republics, to be located in Buenos Aires, and to be responsible for the coordination and inter-American realization of the purposes described, and whose ends shall be to recommend:

- (a) That each American Republic foster the teaching of the history of the others.
- (b) That greater attention be given to the history of Spain, Portugal, Great Britain, and France, and of any other non-American country in respect to matters of major interest to the history of America.

- (c) That the nations endeavor to prevent the inclusion in educational programs and handbooks on history of unfriendly references to other countries or of errors that may have been dispelled by historical criticism.
- (d) That the bellicose emphasis in handbooks on history be lessened, and that the study of the culture of the peoples and the universal development of civilization of each country made by foreigners and by other nations be urged.
- (e) That annoying comparisons between national and foreign historical characters, and also belittling and offensive comments regarding other countries be deleted from textbooks.
- (f) That the narration of victories over other nations shall not be used as the basis for a depreciatory estimate of the defeated people.
- (g) That facts in the narration of wars and battles whose results may have been adverse be not appraised with hatred, or distorted.
- (h) That emphasis be placed upon whatever may contribute constructively to understanding and cooperation among the American countries.

In the fulfillment of the important educational functions committed to it, the "Institute for the Teaching of History" shall maintain close affiliation with the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, established as an organ of cooperation between the geographic and historic institutes of the Americas, of Mexico City, and with other bodies whose ends are similar to its own.

ARTICLE 4

The present convention shall not affect obligations previously entered into by the High Contracting Parties by virtue of international agreements.

ARTICLE 5

The present convention shall be ratified by the High Contracting Parties in conformity with their respective constitutional procedures. The Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Uruguay shall transmit authentic certified copies to the governments for the aforementioned purpose of ratifications. The instrument of ratification shall be deposited in the archives of the Pan American Union in Washington, which shall notify the signatory governments of said deposit. Such notification shall be considered as an exchange of ratifications.

ARTICLE 6

The present convention will enter into force between the High Contracting Parties in the order in which they deposit their respective ratifications.

ARTICLE 7

The present convention shall remain in force indefinitely but may be denounced by means of one year's notice given to the Pan American Union, which shall transmit it to the other signatory governments. After the expiration of this period the convention shall cease in its effect for the remaining High Contracting Parties.

ARTICLE 8

The present convention shall be open for the adherence and accession of the States which are not signatories. The corresponding instruments shall be deposited in the archives of the Pan American Union which shall communicate them to the other High Contracting Parties.

IN WITNESS THEREOF, the following plenipotentiaries have signed this convention in Spanish, English, Portuguese, and French and hereunto affix their respective seals in the city of Montevideo, Republic of Uruguay, this 26th day of December, 1933.

STATEMENT OF THE DELEGATION OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The United States heartily applauds this initiative and desires to record its deep sympathy with every measure which tends to encourage the teaching of the history of the American nations, and particularly the purification of the texts of history books correcting errors, freeing them from bias and prejudice, and eliminating matter which might tend to engender hatred between nations. The delegation of the United States of America desires to point out, however, that the system of education in the United States differs from that in other countries of the Americas in that it lies entirely outside the sphere of activity of the Federal Government and is supported and administered by the State and municipal authorities and by private institutions and individuals. The conference will appreciate, therefore, the constitutional inability of this delegation to sign this convention.

Several resolutions and recommendations of the conference also dealt with various means for promoting more accurate and more extensive knowledge of one another. Such was the resolution recommending to the Governments of America that each should avail itself of the schools, publicity organizations, libraries, and other means of education to instruct its people as to the purposes of inter-American solidarity, peace, labor, and justice.

In a similar vein was another resolution which suggested to the press and to news agencies that greater interest be shown in and more space devoted to news relating to the nations of America, and that they print frequently original articles and other material containing information about the political, economic, commercial, scientific, and literary trends in the other republics.

Moreover, in discussing the results of the Congress of Rectors, Deans, and Educators, held in Habana in February 1930, the conference approved the statutes adopted by the congress, and recommended especially that in the interchange of professors the rule should be adopted as fundamental that such professors should give in the countries participating in the exchange not only lectures of a theoretical and scientific character but also complete courses of practical specialization. At the same time it recommended that "a scientific and technical exchange be made among American countries, in order to raise the cultural level and to perfect human activities in the Continent," special consideration being given to agricultural activities, as these represent the principal source of wealth in most of the American countries.

Another means of appreciation of inter-American culture was advocated in the resolution on artistic interchange, which reads as follows:

The Seventh International Conference of American States,
RESOLVES:

1. To recommend to the American nations that they exempt from customs duties all paintings and sculptures of American artists.

2. To recommend the holding of exhibitions of artists, nationals of the countries where the future International Conferences of American States will meet, and the appointment of painters and sculptors as delegates to promote and create an active interchange.

3. To recommend the holding of circulating exhibitions throughout all the Americas, showing works of American artists, to be chosen by each government in due time, endeavoring to have all the American countries represented.

4. To recommend the establishment of an interchange of permanent American collections.

5. To recommend that the Pan American Union assemble the most complete possible collection of works of American sculptors and painters, and that it endeavor, after holding an exhibition at its headquarters in Washington, to circulate the collection through all the American countries.

Another highly important resolution was on the topic of American bibliography. It recommended to the nations of America, among other things, the compilation of "a comprehensive and retrospective national bibliography of old books, pamphlets, circulars, newspapers, etc., printed and published"; the "preparation of directories, manuals, or catalogues, calendars, and guides to archives and collections of manuscripts"; and the "preparation of directories showing where the manuscripts which make up the total of this class of material in each nation may be found." It further recommends:

That the Inter-American Bibliographic Commission and the National Commissions already in existence propose a concrete plan for the adoption of a uniform system of cataloguing, which may be decimal, with the amendments introduced by the Library of Congress in Washington, in order to facilitate adoption by all the national libraries of America, of the "Union Catalogue" of the libraries of the United States.

The most modern method of promoting intellectual cooperation among the nations of the New World and of furthering their acquaintance of each other—the use of broadcasting—was sanctioned by the conference in the following resolution:

WHEREAS, There have been assigned, through the intermediary of the Pan American Union, five short-wave radio frequencies in five different bands, for the broadcasting of inter-American radio programs, and

WHEREAS, These broadcasting channels are intended to be used in promoting better understanding among the republics of the American continent, through the broadcasting of the music of the several countries and addresses on their cultural and intellectual life, and

WHEREAS, The utilization of these broadcasting frequencies requires the installation by the several Governments of equipment that will enable the broadcasting of programs; these programs to be formulated in cooperation with, and the hours for the utilization of these frequencies to be assigned by, the Pan American Union.

The Seventh International Conference of American States
RESOLVES:

To recommend that the Governments, members of the Pan American Union, avail themselves as promptly as possible of the assignment of these short-wave

broadcasting frequencies which should contribute so materially to the development of closer acquaintanceship among the republics of the continent.

To request the Pan American Union to take the steps that may be necessary to bring about the utilization of these frequencies, to formulate a plan for the assignment of time during which these frequencies are to be utilized, and to recommend to the respective governments the types of program best adapted to fulfill the purposes for which these radio frequencies were allotted.

Mindful of the great heritage America has received from the past, especially from the indigenous civilizations which have left such tremendous monuments as the Maya and the Inca temples, the conference approved another resolution in which it expressed "its gratification at the progress recently made in the work of revealing the civilization and culture of the ancient peoples of America," and the Pan American Union was urged "to continue its yearly publication of an account of the progress made in the field of archeology on the continent, to distribute the material in question as widely as possible, and to cooperate by every means at its disposal in the archeological investigations now organized and to be organized in the future."

When it came to the subject of protecting immovable monuments, the conference approved a resolution recommending "to the Governments of America that they consider as immovable monuments worthy of the protection of the State and, consequently, of international cooperation . . . not only the archeological and historical pre-Columbian and colonial monuments, but also those which are closely associated with the struggle for independence and the initial period of the organization of the Republics . . . ; and works of nature which are of great interest from a scientific point of view and which are indispensable to the study of the flora and geology, and also those which are of real interest from an artistic point of view." The resolution also recommends "to the American Governments which have not already done so, that they adopt regulations with a view to facilitating and stimulating expeditions of historical investigation to immovable monuments, and also scientific explorations of an archeological nature. . . . When these scientific investigations are organized in a foreign country, they should obtain previous authorization through diplomatic channels to the end that the explorers may count on the protection of the Government owning the presumed monuments and that the latter may have guarantees with regard to the responsibility of the expedition." It recommended also that all governments which had not yet done so should subscribe to the "'Roerich Pact' . . . which has as its object the universal adoption of a flag, already designed and generally known, in order thereby to preserve in any time of danger all nationally and privately owned immovable monuments which form the cultural treasure of nations."

With respect to the protection of monuments the conference resolved "to submit to the consideration of the Governments of America the reciprocal usefulness and advisability of signing a multi-lateral treaty," in order to "secure for all the signatory States the knowledge, protection, and conservation of movable monuments of the pre-Columbian and colonial periods, and of the epoch of emancipation and the Republic, which exist in each of them."

Other resolutions in this field included one on copyright protection, which provides for a commission of five members to prepare, after studying suitable documents to be furnished by the respective republics, a preliminary draft convention; another recommended to the American Governments that they make a thorough investigation of the different scientific, artistic, and literary professions; and in a third the conference applauded "the initiative of the Congress of Educators which will be held at Santiago, Chile, in 1934, under the auspices of the Pan American Education Association, an entity engaged in placing on permanent bases the cooperation of the educators of the American nations."

From this brief indication of the various aspects of inter-American intellectual cooperation treated at Montevideo, it is evident that the conference was desirous of taking concrete measures to make it more and more effective. All the delegations there represented realized how vital it is for the future that their respective countries shall avail themselves of every opportunity to bring about a closer understanding of and a more intimate cooperation with their continental neighbors, so that, in the words of the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, and chairman of his delegation, the Seventh International Conference of American States may be made "the beginning of a great new era of a great renaissance in American cooperative effort to promote our entire material, moral, and spiritual affairs, and to erect an edifice of peace that will forever endure."



PAN AMERICANISM

I REJOICE in this opportunity to participate in the celebration of "Pan American Day" and to extend on behalf of the people of the United States a fraternal greeting to our sister American Republics. The celebration of "Pan American Day" in this building, dedicated to international goodwill and cooperation, exemplifies a unity of thought and purpose among the peoples of this hemisphere. It is a manifestation of the common ideal of mutual helpfulness, sympathetic understanding, and spiritual solidarity.

There is inspiration in the thought that on this day the attention of the citizens of the twenty-one Republics of America is focused on the common ties—historical, cultural, economic, and social—which bind them to one another. Common ideals and a community of interest, together with a spirit of cooperation, have led to the realization that the well-being of one nation depends in large measure upon the well-being of its neighbors. It is upon these foundations that Pan Americanism has been built. . . .

Friendship among nations, as among individuals, calls for constructive efforts to muster the forces of humanity in order that an atmosphere of close understanding and cooperation may be cultivated. It involves mutual obligations and responsibilities, for it is only by sympathetic respect for the rights of others and a scrupulous fulfillment of the corresponding obligations by each member of the community that a true fraternity can be maintained.

The essential qualities of a true Pan Americanism must be the same as those which constitute a good neighbor, namely, mutual understanding, and through such understanding, a sympathetic appreciation of the other's point of view. It is only in this manner that we can hope to build up a system of which confidence, friendship, and good-will are the cornerstones.

—FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT, 1933.

Universal peace has been the chief aim of civilization. Nations fail or succeed according to their failure or success in this supreme undertaking. I profoundly believe that the American nations during the coming years will write a chapter of achievement in the advancement of peace that will stand out in world history.

It is in these inspiring circumstances that I and my associates have come to the conference¹ here in Montevideo. We come, too,

¹ The Seventh International Conference of American States.

for the reason that the people and the Government of the United States feel the keenest interest in this conference and have the strongest desire to contribute to its success. We come because we share in common the things that are vital to the entire material, moral, and spiritual welfare of the people of this hemisphere, and because the satisfactory development of civilization itself in this Western World depends on cooperative efforts by all the Americas. No other common aspiration could so closely draw peoples together. . . .

Let us in the broad spirit of this revitalized policy make this the beginning of a great new era of a great renaissance in American cooperative effort to promote our entire material, moral, and spiritual affairs and to erect an edifice of peace that will forever endure. Let each American nation vie with the other in the practice of the policy of the good neighbor. Let suspicion, misunderstanding, and prejudice be banished from every mind, and genuine friendship for and trust in each other and a singleness of purpose to promote the welfare of all be substituted. Let each nation welcome the closest scrutiny by the others of the spirit and manner in which it carries out the policy of the good neighbor. Let actions rather than mere words be the acid test of the conduct and motives of each nation. Let each country demonstrate by its every act and practice the sincerity of its purposes and the unselfishness of its relationships as a neighbor.

It is in this spirit that the Government and the people of the United States express their recognition of the common interests and common aspirations of the American nations and join with them in a renewed spirit of broad cooperation for the promotion of liberty under law, of peace, of justice, and of righteousness.

—CORDELL HULL, 1933.

. . . I ask you to put aside the misleading ideas of the "two Americas" which suggest division based on national origins. I am confident that you will agree with me that this distinction is not only superficial but, if applied generally in the Americas, would create not two but many Americas. In both North and South America the population has many racial origins. Each nation in the New World is developing a distinct type. In general, the varying types are products of indigenous elements, the original migrations from the Old World and later the waves of people who sought their happiness in the life of a new and changing environment. We in the Americas salute with appreciation our forebears in Europe but we are building our common life not on the past but on the needs of the present and the hopes of the future. . . .

The contribution of the American peoples to the principle of unity among states equal under international law and to cooperation on

international matters, stands as a monument to their political leadership and their solidarity. With the expanding economic life of the nineteenth century, the limitations of nationalism began to be a menace. It became increasingly evident that nations, for their own safety, must learn to cooperate in the solution of certain problems which they could not solve acting separately or bargaining two by two. Long before Europe was forced to create a peace organization, Pan American cooperation had gathered momentum and effectiveness.

The outer evidences of Pan American unity are the conferences which offer legislative proposals to the respective states, the Pan American Union which is administrative, and the many tribunals and commissions provided for in arbitration treaties. Perhaps even stronger and more integrating are the inner, the intangible evidences of Pan Americanism which, while defying arbitrary classification, are inherent in the daily intercourse between the Americas.

—WILLIAM S. CULBERTSON, 1933.

GREAT AND GOOD FRIEND: After fifteen years of sacrifices devoted to the liberty of America to secure a system of guaranties that in peace and war shall be the shield of our new destiny, it is time the interests and relations uniting the American Republics, formerly Spanish colonies, should have a fundamental basis that shall perpetuate, if possible, those Governments.

To initiate that system and concentrate the power of this great political body, implies the exercise of a sublime authority, capable of directing the policy of our Governments, whose influence should maintain uniformity of principles, and whose name alone should put an end to our quarrels.

Such a respectable authority can exist only in an assembly of plenipotentiaries, appointed by each of our Republics, and called together under the auspices of the victory obtained by our arms over the Spanish power.

Profoundly imbued with these ideas, I invited, in 1822, as President of the Republic of Colombia, the Governments of Mexico, Peru, Chile, and Buenos Aires to form a confederation, and hold on the Isthmus of Panama, or some other point agreeable to the majority, a congress of plenipotentiaries from each State "that should act as a council in great conflicts, to be appealed to in case of common danger, and be a faithful interpreter of public treaties, when difficulties should arise, and conciliate, in short, all our differences." . . .

The day our plenipotentiaries make the exchanges of their powers will stamp in the diplomatic history of the world an immortal epoch.

When, after a hundred centuries, posterity shall search for the origin of our public law, and shall remember the compacts that solidified its

destiny, they will finger with respect the protocols of the Isthmus. In them they will find the plan of the first alliances that shall sketch the mark of our relations with the universe. What, then, shall be the Isthmus of Corinth compared with that of Panama?

God preserve Your Excellency.

Your great and good friend,

SIMÓN BOLÍVAR.

JOSÉ S. CARRIÓN,

Minister of Government and Foreign Relations.

LIMA, December 7, 1824.

It has been said that "America is not a chance event of history but the incarnation of human hope," and when universal society is convulsively shaken in the confusion of the fundamental doctrines of Law, and when the Nations that gave birth to occidental civilization cannot succeed in directing nor defining, in accordance with the demands of humanity, economic ideas, political formulas, or the juridical structure, that profound hope seeks anew a channel in the promised land of our hemisphere. . . .

This gathering, gentlemen of the Conference, is nothing but a prolongation of the generous dream of Bolívar—a dream, perhaps, still in the dawn of our history—a beautiful reality, perhaps in the promises of tomorrow. If the immensity of the continent, the extent of its distances, the variety of its climate, the diversity of its products, and the regional sentiments definitely rooted in more than a century of independent life, fully justify the territorial boundaries that have sanctioned the existence of twenty-one sovereign nations, it is equally true that the aspiration of the great Venezuelan has found fruitful realization in the identity of spiritual and political purposes that binds the nations of the New World and that creates and spreads over all borders a unanimous will of continental solidarity. . . .

Despite everything, the tree of confraternity is growing in propitious soil; and it is our duty to stand watch over its fruits, which are to mature slowly but surely under the sun of cordiality in these lands of mountains and gems, where nature rises as high as human thought, where love and creative will become one, while the mighty symphony of the national anthems merges majestically into the rhythm of a single heart.

—ALBERTO MAÑÉ (*Uruguay*), 1933.

The present problem of America is the problem of its population, of its resources, of its civilization, of its highways, of its merchant marine, of its industries, and of its commerce. . . . A tariff and custom alliance, that is the great defensive weapon of America. . . . The inter-

ests of America have changed; its political enemies have disappeared. It is not a case of a puerile renewal of the vows of our first war-time period; the political and military epoch has passed; it has been succeeded by a period of material enterprises, commerce, industry, and wealth. It is agreed that we must begin here in order to end with the complete fulfillment of the lofty promises of a political nature which the revolutionary programs contained. Thus, the new Congress² will be political only incidentally; its distinctive characteristics will be those of a commercial and maritime congress, such as that held recently in Vienna and Stuttgart, on the occasion of the formation of the German customs union. The ailment which the Congress is called to treat is not the ailment of foreign oppression but the ailment of poverty, of lack of population, of backwardness and miserableness. The present enemies of America are to be found within itself; they are its unpassable deserts, its closed and unexplored rivers, its coast uninhabited because of niggardly restrictions, the anarchy of its customs and tariffs, the absence of credit, that is, of artificial and speculative wealth as a means of producing positive and real wealth. These are the great enemies of America against whom the new Congress has to devise measures of combat and pursuit to the death.

—JUAN BAUTISTA ALBERDI (*Argentina*), 1844.

But there is in this conference,³ gentlemen, something of great significance which must also be carefully pointed out. For the first time we have given economic content to Pan Americanism; for the first time we have discussed commercial and tariff policies.

This means that we have felt that there is an inescapable movement toward solidarity which connects and binds us together and which forces us to march directly toward cooperation; and that, gentlemen, represents a great outlook for the future. Upon this we may also predicate that we are to study directly not the superficial aspects but the causes of our problems. We are going to study the causality of our problems because the small countries, weakened by economic insufficiency, must not be faced with the painful inconsistency of being autonomous before the law and overpowered by economic reality. They are capable of increasing their populations, strengthening their internal life, and developing their activities, and America may then present the great and radiant prospect of a group of strong nations all proudly marching hand in hand on the same level along the highway of history.

—CARLOS SAAVEDRA LAMAS (*Argentina*), 1933.

² A General American Congress advocated by the author.

³ The Seventh International Conference of American States.

Veiled in darkness in Egyptian narratives, lost among the legends of Atlantis, half described by Seneca in his *Ultima Thule*, glimpsed in the constellations which shine in the *Divine Comedy*, foreseen by those Portuguese and Italians who were alike humanists and discoverers, the American continent, before becoming a recognized geographic region, was already a vehement desire and almost a poetic necessity of the nations. It was given all the names of fable and it was even expected to be the place where paradise lost would be regained. It was always a chimerical and alluring place in which to lay the foundations of a perfect republic. When one day the creative tenacity of Italy and the inspired enthusiasm of Spain were combined, America emerged from the waters to revive the political dreams of all the European utopians. See how Montaigne, as America enlarged, rose to a higher level in order to dominate the panorama of races and civilizations. See how the mere discovery of America seemed to fertilize the mind of the most acute thinkers. Just because America had become visible Campanella, Thomas More, Bacon, and many others dared to think independently of the ideal city, of the human aggregate, of legislation, and of customs. Thus America received its baptism, and it was with reason that His Excellency the Minister of Foreign Affairs [of Uruguay] insisted on the concept that America is but another name for human hope. It was the outlet for adventure or dreams, for mystic desires, or for the simple desire for power, which is like a primary form of virtue or the marble in which conduct is to chisel its sculpture. It was the refuge for those who sought liberty of conscience. It was the nursery of republican ideals. It was, is, and will be the dream of Bolívar. The events of history never reach the ideal. We live far short of attaining our goal. But, as Rodó used to answer, there is a proud "It does not matter!" that emerges from the depths of life. The destiny of America is to continue supporting attempts toward human improvement, and to continue serving as the scene of praiseworthy adventures. Either this is the aim of Pan Americanism (the effort to harmonize a continent in the service of humanity) or this conference can ascribe to it no aim at all.

—ALFONSO REYES (*Mexico*), 1933.

I believe it is the duty of all citizens of the New World to contribute in the fullest measure of their capabilities to the reign of law and reason among our countries, to the fostering of real friendship and understanding between our peoples, to the maintenance of that sacred fire which was lit in the minds of Bolívar and Clay and Blaine, to the promotion of that real and sound Pan Americanism which is predicated upon the proposition that democracy, equality, justice, and right are the intangible patrimony of the Western Hemisphere.

—RICARDO J. ALFARO (*Panama*), 1933.

SELECTIONS FROM THE LITERATURE OF THE AMERICAS

ARGENTINA

AT DUSK ¹

The plain—whose whiteness, due to the silvery plumes of the pampa grass in its sovereign glory, extends like a blanket to the circle which seems to be the intersection of the earth and the sky—begins to assume the rosy afternoon tint peculiar to that memorable land as the sun, hiding behind the ridges, lights up the outlines of the cloud floating on the wings of the breeze, and mixes into a single inimitable color the thousand hues of the silent, brilliant, and melancholy pampa.

Little by little the shadow creeps over the plain. Over there it conceals the thick copse in whose tangled filaments the viper left his scaly skin when the time came for him to change into his gay spring coat. Here it hides the furrows ploughed in the hillsides by the waters which run musically on rainy days to join the brooks. Farther beyond, it covers the bleaching trunks of the *ñandubay*, sacrificed to the axe in the not-far-distant past when the country was still flecked with these advance sentinels of the forests which loom blackly in the distance.

The road which, issuing from the forest like an immense serpent, turns and twists over the plain, is deserted; it is traversed only by little puffs of dust formed by the breeze as it sweeps the bare surface wherever the road emerges, free from the surrounding underbrush, on the crest of the hills, ready to wind to the bottom over the steep slopes.

Far off, on rises almost invisible in the shadow, the plain is colored by variegated herds of cattle which, at the shouts of the peons charged with rounding them up, have come together from the outer bounds of the range.

The herd advances little by little with calm unhurried pace, stopping to snatch here and there a mouthful of the fragrant tempting grass, while tails switch flanks and sweep backs to scare the flies away. As they proceed the cattle seek isolated detours, the borders of the stream where hares have already begun their frolics, or the deserted road, as if knowing that there, where pasturage is scanty, those disturbers of rest which hover in the air ready to attack are fewer.

¹ From "Un viaje al país de los mataderos," Buenos Aires, 1920.



Courtesy of The Hispanic Society of America.

AN ARGENTINE GAUCHO.

The life of those picturesque plainsmen, the gauchos, during the latter part of the past century has been admirably portrayed in the paintings of the Argentine artist Cesáreo Bernaldo de Quirós.

The trembling bleat of the sheep is heard as they slowly approach the fold, to which they return through force of habit. One follows another as they proceed in groups, tearing the pasture with their slender active hoofs.

There they crowd around the nest of a lapwing which, with open wings, showing its rosy claws, and twittering bravely, defends its greenish eggs from the malice of a bold and curious ewe stamping the earth with her nervous hoofs as though trying to frighten the bird; here, they stop on almost imperceptible hillocks and stretch their muzzles in the air as if trying to taste it; and beyond, they lead along affectionately the laggard lambs whose new fleece dots with snow the dirty blackish color of the flock.

Farther behind and almost flanking the confused mass of sheep a few ostriches file gravely by, one after another; they are going with measured and tranquil tread to the thistle patch near the sheepfold, where they will spend the night free from danger of ambush or other

peril. Whenever they stretch their long flexible necks—on whose surface the eye can follow the path of the locusts harvested by their beaks—they utter a long-drawn-out hoarse buzzing whistle which is echoed by the monotonous tremulous bleating from the sheepfold and the jingling of the bell mares which come galloping up followed by the rest of the horses and the peons driving them.

Meanwhile, playful black swallows—for which the cat is lying in wait behind a post of the corral fence—are idling in the sky. Apparently they are trying to block the way of the silent flocks of pigeons which, with full crops, are flying toward the mountains; to cut off the swift and sibilant flight of ducks which, in V formation, are returning from an excursion over lakes and ponds; to turn from its course some heavy lazy stork returning to the mysterious ravine which has been its sleeping place for years; or, no more than black dots, to mingle with the gulls which eddy on the horizon like pieces of paper scattered by the wind, tinting a dark cloud garlanded with red by the last rays of the setting sun. . . .

Everything is gradually going to sleep; the night falls, dark, brilliant, and silent. One hears only the monotonous tread of the horse as he walks round and round the post to which he is tied, and sees, glimpsed through half-shut lids, nothing but fireflies flitting from blossom to blossom and lighting with their intermittent glow the mysteries of the shadow.

—JOSÉ S. ÁLVAREZ.

BOLIVIA

SUCRE IN COLONIAL DAYS²

. . . The wars of conquest, administrative importance, and a delightful climate combined to make of La Plata [now Sucre] a four-fold capital, ecclesiastic, forensic, literary, and social, its society composed of the families of high colonial officials and of mining magnates who sought there a comfortable haven for their years and recuperation from their labors.

The location was extremely lovely, then even more so than now, because of the woods round about when, in 1539, Pedro de Anzúrez arrived there to found a city by order of the Marquis Pizarro. . . . Two conical porphyry peaks, like mysterious sphinxes, rise side by side to form a singular background for the southern and southeastern suburbs. The line of the continental divide bisects their bases so exactly that the streams which flow from the one feed the Amazon, and those which descend from the other are the headwaters of the Río de la Plata. . . .

² From "Últimos Días Coloniales," by Gabriel René-Moreno, Santiago de Chile, 1896. The centenary of the author's birth was celebrated on February 6, 1934.

All in all it is easy to believe that, between Lima and Buenos Aires, this city became the most considerable assemblage in the southern hemisphere of educated creoles, Spanish magnates, and rich or well-to-do families.

The far-flung jurisdiction of its Royal Audiencia, the fame of its University throughout the viceroyalty, and the high rank of its church court drew to it, as permanent residents or as transients, a great number of lawyers, litigants, petty officials, students, teachers, clergy, and employees of different ranks, who, by their variety of occupations and duties, brought no little movement and animation to the city in the busy hours of the day. . . .

Since it was the watchtower of public administration in Upper Peru, the ecclesiastical metropolis of the viceroyalty, the consecrated classroom of a numerous youth from widely separated climes, a legal arena, and the center of the interests and passions of civil society, it was not to be wondered at that in the course of the centuries officialdom should take on all the prerogatives of a great lady of the provinces. The city's annals form a brightly illuminated chapter of the Hispanic period in the two southern viceroyalties of which it was successively the secondary capital. . . .

Because the city was small and the agents centered there to cooperate and to clash were so many and so necessary, the historic aspect of this city was more like that of an enormous factory, in whose offices and dependencies royal governors, the proud populace, wealthy magnates, churchmen, and native youths, elbow to elbow and head to head, wove the splendid colonial fabric, so little known even now and so worthy of study in the different sections of the New World.

As in so many other cases, the king granted the former capital of the Charcas a coat of arms. It consisted of a shield divided horizontally: in the upper part two mountains with a cross surmounting each, and between them, a tree with a column at either side; in the lower part, at the left a castle with two lions rampant, at the right two towers with two more lions, and a pennant in the middle; all on a field of silver.

But its true and never sullied escutcheon is its glory, and its glory is that famous cry of liberty uttered when, on May 25, 1809, all South America still slept the deep sleep of servitude; a cry to which, days later, La Paz replied boldly with war and with the first martyrs for continental liberty.

Privileged during the colony, the city continued to be privileged after independence as the capital of the Republic. What memorable events were those of the critical days of the new era! Its precincts were then a cenacle in which were conceived, debated, and formulated fundamental and eternal resolutions. Bolívar, who was a statesman and a poet, overcame a thousand odds to visit it. He entered an

enemy of autonomy and left an advocate. Immediately afterward, Sucre there devoted four precious years of his life, his four years as President, to organizing the future existence of Upper Peru [Bolivia].

One is held spellbound there without taking a step. As the city grows old, something noble hovers above and descends upon it. A certain glimpse of the past seems to be rising like an aureole over the ancient mass of its buildings. The bustle of its classrooms has ceased, but the clamor of its bells remains. So do vaulted roofs, towers, domes, and Byzantine obelisks; doors, windows, balconies, and caves like those in Trappist cells. There is still majestic pomp in its cathedral rites; leisure in its streets; here and there vestiges of some seigniorial grandeur—everywhere a certain characteristic mark, the mark of the ancient capital of Upper Peru, which keeps its indelible stamp, the stamp of culture and refinement in the manners and the customs of all its inhabitants. . . .

—GABRIEL RENÉ-MORENO.



Photograph by I. F. Scheeler.

THE CATHEDRAL, SUCRE.

"There is still majestic pomp in its cathedral rites; leisure in its streets; everywhere a certain characteristic mark, the mark of the ancient capital of Upper Peru."

BRAZIL

AN INTERNATIONAL CITY³

Two months ago, on the southern frontier of Brazil, I had the good fortune to stand for a single moment in two countries at the same time, treading my neighbor's soil and my own at the spot where the Uruguayan city of Rivera and the Brazilian city of Sant' Anna do Livramento touch.

Usually, on the border between nations, where two foreign cities face each other, a well-defined space indicates the limits of the respective sovereignties; sometimes it is a fortified line, with a warlike apparatus of trenches and earthworks, or ditches and walls; at others the defense is merely natural, sovereignty being determined by physical accident—a stream of water, a defile between mountains, an empty field, or a long road bordered by markers or interrupted by movable barriers.

But between Uruguay and Brazil, in the district in which Rivera and Livramento lie, there is none of that apparent opposition, that obvious break. There, a case perhaps unique in political geography, the cities are not separated at all; they are indistinguishable. They blend and, through the two intermingled cities, the two countries do not clash, but become one. A street without a break passes through it, a single artery which begins in the south on Uruguayan territory and ends in the north on Brazilian soil. The same lovely promenade grants its benefits to the two populations; the windows of Uruguayan houses look out on Brazilian lares, and the domestic life of our homes can espy the intimacies of Uruguayan penates. From this singular frontier situation social oddities result. In the life of these two cities there are phenomena like the diffusion of liquids in physics. Thus, across the dividing line constant currents of commerce, of family, of customs have been established—endosmosis and exosmosis, in which rights of property and residence were shuffled and the distinctive qualities of the two races mixed together—to such a degree that even the two tongues have reciprocally a strong alien tinge, making the speech and writings of the inhabitants in the vicinity almost a new dialect, somewhat barbarous, but piquant. . . .

Two months ago, when I visited that frontier, I tried to stand on the precise spot where Brazil ended and Uruguay began. The same smiling landscape, here and there, pleased the eye—the same hills and the same fields, the same plane trees, the same domestic architecture; there and here, my ear perceived the sound of the same speech, a mingling of the voluptuous melody of Castilian and the serious and masculine harmonies of Portuguese; opening my arms, I could enfold

³ From "A Defesa Nacional", Rio de Janeiro, 1917.

in my embrace both nationalities; and one of my feet trod on soil which was mine, while the other pressed alien ground. But I felt decidedly in that moment that that alien ground was also mine, in so friendly a manner did it welcome my tread. . . .

And then I realized, too, how beautiful and sweet peace between nations is, and how easy it is when nations—strong and sure of themselves, free and unassuming, willingly content with what they have, defending their rights and respecting those of others—can trust each other and each ennoble the other.

—OLAVO BILAC.



Courtesy of Noemy Silveira.

YOUNG COFFEE TREES IN BLOOM.

Stretching over miles of rolling country, the great coffee plantations of Brazil present an unforgettable sight, particularly when in blossom.

CHILE

THE ENEMY⁴

I dreamed that I was already dust—that I was a meter of dark earth by the side of a road. When the loaded haycarts passed by in the evening, the fragrance that they left in the air made me quiver, reminding me of the field where I was born. Afterwards, when the reapers passed, with their arms around one another, it called up memories also; and at the plaintive sound of the twilight bells, my soul, under its blind dust, remembered God.

Close to me, the soil formed a little mound of red clay, with an outline like a woman's breast; and, thinking that it too might hold a soul, I asked it:

"Who are you?"

It answered, "I am your Enemy—she whom you used to call, simply and terribly, 'The Enemy.'"

I answered, "I used to hate when I was still flesh—flesh that had youth, flesh that had pride. But now I am dark dust, and I love even the thistle that grows above me, and the wheels of the carts that mangle me as they pass."

"Neither do I now hate," she said, "and I am red like a wound because I have suffered, and they put me close to you because I asked to love you."

"I wish you were nearer," I answered, "upon my arms, which never enfolded you."

She answered, "I wish you were upon my heart, in the place on my heart that bore the burn of your hatred."

One evening a potter passed; he sat down to rest, and he gently caressed both mounds of earth.

"They are soft," he said; "they are equally soft, although one is dark and the other blood-red. I will carry them away and make a vase of them."

The potter mingled us together more completely than anything is mingled in the light; more than two breezes, more than two waters. And no acid, no chemistry of men could have separated us.

When he put us into a glowing kiln, we acquired the most luminous and most beautiful color that the sun ever looked upon; it was a living rose with freshly-opened petals.

⁴ From "Some Spanish-American Poets", translated by Alice Stone Blackwell. D. Appleton and Company, New York and London, 1929. Copyright by Alice Stone Blackwell, 1929.

That was a simple vase, without ornamental borders, without incisions, without anything that separated us. When the potter took it out of the glowing kiln, I thought that it was not mud, but a flower. Like God, he had attained to the making of a flower!

And the vase sweetened the water to such a degree that the man who bought it took delight in pouring into it the bitterest juices—wormwood, hemlock—to receive them back made honey-sweet. And if the soul of Cain himself could have been immersed in the vase, it would have risen from it like a honeycomb dripping with honey.

—GABRIELA MISTRAL (Translation by ALICE STONE BLACKWELL.)



A CHILEAN LAKE.

In the southern region of Chile magnificent and almost endless panoramas combining mountain, lake, and forest are displayed before the visitor.

COLOMBIA

STORM IN THE JUNGLE ⁵

A gust of wind bent the bamboo cane so that its green arrows dipped into the water. Great drops of rain began to fall, roughening the surface. Every moment the blasts became more furious, and under their attacks the monarchs of the mountain bowed groaning. The tempest moaned, limbs of trees creaked, palms shook their tattered crests, lianas were torn asunder, and everything, forest, river, and storm-tossed heavens, endured a tragic hour of the most turbulent fury. An intense clamor like the howling of wild beasts broke what had been silent grandeur; the light was uncertain, and in the shadows of the storm thunder rumbled and each lightning flash rent the threatening clouds with red-hot z's. As rising currents drove back descending ones, the river's surface rose in one wave after another, as it turned back upon itself in horror. One of the enormous ceibas on the bank, humbled by the hurricane, was doubled over as the invisible demon whipped and whistled through its branches: a tremendous roar drowned other sounds, the earth supporting the colossus rose in an explosion, and the tree came down with a crash, opening an abyss in the water which engulfed it; there remained visible only the trembling roots which still held clods of crumbling earth, and, little by little, tremulously disappeared like the tentacles of an octopus.

Once the storm had spent itself, the wild, aggressive, powerful, dense forest, full of deep murmurs and eternal silences, recovered its former might. A starry blush dyed the edge of the frailest orchids; the dark green of the oak leaves, cleansed by the rain, became cruelly intense; the reeds swayed luxuriously, as if they heard Love laughing in the hollows of the tree-trunks; the martyred lianas again twined themselves to their support. For in the forest the essence of all passion and all sin effervesces, and there Fever keeps vigil with misty vapors, Death hides behind diaphanous shadows, and Life decks itself out with lace of foam. From hollow to hollow the roar of tigers, the buzzing of insects, the falling of leaves echo in the heart of the jungle and are repeated to infinity. Each drop of dew which rolls down a tree-trunk keeps forever the bit of sky which serves it for a soul; the stagnant water where the water-bugs embroider circles of illusion keeps the stars prisoners during both day and night, for ever and ever. While the branches of the thousand-year-old tree which has fallen are still trembling, peace has once again settled upon them, and calms them, and puts them to sleep while flocks of birds and armies of ants bear new pollen; and tender seeds, their quiet germination hidden by the night, make ready to grow on the dead colossus.

⁵ From "Zoraya", Bogotá, 1931.

Nothing dies in the forest, nor pauses, nor is mute; death engenders life, silence sound, quietness power, fire coolness, and shadow light.

To sing of thee, oh forest of America, would require a language with words as hard as thy *lignum-vitae* trees which blunt lightning, and as light as the leaves of thy *gualandayes* which curl at the pressure of the air; a language containing words which can be saturated with silence to tell of thy gentleness, and wrapped in thunder to proclaim thy might; a language of words burning as sunlight and cool as pearls of shadow, of the darkest and blackest shadow, because to tell of thy sound there are no sounds, and to evoke thy silence there are no silences!

—DANIEL SAMPER ORTEGA.



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PATIO OF SANTO DOMINGO, BOGOTÁ.

This colonial building, for many years a Dominican convent, at present houses the National Department of Posts and Telegraphs and other governmental offices.

COSTA RICA
THE TWO MUSICIANS ⁶

I saw them, and I recall it as vividly as though I were looking at them now. One, Don Alejandro Cardona, now rests in the ground, that same ground which, although not his own, he defended like a hero and bedewed generously with his blood, so that he now sleeps with those valiant men who covered themselves with scars and with glory in the national war. The other, Master Pilar Jiménez, is still living, aged but energetic and hardworking, always earning the living God sends him, and keeping his ears open for any cry, any chirp, any boy's whistling, the crowing of cocks, the warbling of birds, the thousand harmonies of earth, which he loves most dearly, and of heaven, which has been protecting him now for more than sixty years. His smiling kindly face is framed by scanty unkempt locks, now white as the heart in his breast and the thoughts in his brain. He adores his wife, a worthy woman; is wrapped up in his sons, in whom he takes a real and legitimate pride; has an innate affection for his country; and professes the religion of labor and of doing one's duty. But he has an organic ailment which completely dominates him, and neither his son, a distinguished physician, nor the invigorating air of his village, nor his iron constitution, has succeeded nor will succeed in curing it. He suffers from music! He will inevitably die of it, although peacefully and without pain.

Yes indeed, as I was saying, I remember it as if I saw them before me now.

It was seven o'clock in the morning. Master Pilar, a roll of sheet music and his eternal umbrella under his arm, passed hurriedly by Cardona's house as the latter, who was only just up, put his head out the door.

"Hello, Master, why such a hurry?"

"I am on my way to San Juan to chant a mass, and I must be there by nine."

"I've fixed the harmonium; it's in pretty good shape now."

"Let's see."

Master Pilar put his head in the door, Cardona sat down at the harmonium, and to be more impressive he began with the opening chords of the Braga's delightful serenade.

Instinctively Master Pilar inched into the room and over to the table, took up a violin lying there, tuned it, and began to play the familiar melody, while Cardona intoned or hummed the vocal part.

Next came Gounod's *Ave Maria*, and after that, the lovely song *Si tu me amaras* by I don't know whom, and then this, that, and the other.

⁶ From "La Propia", San José de Costa Rica, 1921.

The harmonium was working beautifully, and the violin did not pause for a single moment. Cardona, with the pride of one whose technique is faultless and with the passion of a born artist, played like a master. Don Pilar made the violin sing with all the delicacy of his still youthful old soul, all his ardent enthusiasm, and all the convulsions of the disease which will eventually be the death of him. Neither of the two paid any attention to what was going on about them—to the suffocating heat, to the perspiration streaming down their temples, to the fatigue pervading their bones. Music and more music! An overwhelming intoxication of notes and arpeggios, of melodies and discords; a sublime frenzy of ineffable feeling, their souls' blood, the bright ray of noble thought! A couple of admirable fools, reveling in the voluptuous depravity of sound and the enchanting delirium of harmony!

"Excuse me a minute," said Don Alejandro's wife, coming into the room, "the table has been set some time and your luncheon is getting cold."

"What time is it?" exclaimed Master Pilar.

"It has just struck eleven."

"Caramba."

They are still waiting for him at San Juan to chant that mass.

—MANUEL GONZÁLEZ ZELEDÓN.



A COSTA RICAN BANANA PLANTATION.

Possessing an ideal climate for this tropical fruit, Costa Rica has large plantations extending inland from the Caribbean coast.

CUBA

THE INDIANS OF AMERICA ⁷

There could be no sadder and more beautiful poem than that which might be inspired by American history. It is impossible to read, without tenderness and without seeming to see the air filled with flowers and birds, one of those good old books bound in parchment which tell of Indian America, of its cities and its festivals, of the excellence of its art and the charm of its customs. Some Indians lived simply, in isolation, with no clothing and no wants, like newly born peoples; and they began to paint their strange figures on the rocks by the river banks, where the woods are most lonely and man gives most thought to the marvels of the world. Others were older peoples, and lived in tribes, in reed or adobe villages, eating what they secured by hunting and fishing, and fighting with their neighbors. Still others had become real nations, with cities of a hundred and forty thousand houses, palaces adorned with gold paintings, much business in the streets and in the squares, and marble temples with gigantic statues of their gods. Their works do not resemble those of other peoples, except as one man resembles another. They were innocent, superstitious, and terrible. They created their own government, their own religion, their own art, their own warfare, their own architecture, their own industry, their own poetry: everything having to do with them is interesting, bold, new. It was an artistic race, intelligent and unsullied. The history of the Nahuas and the Mayas of Mexico reads like a novel, as does that of the Chibchas of Colombia, the Cumanagotos of Venezuela, the Quechuas of Peru, the Aymará of Bolivia, the Charrúas of Uruguay, and the Araucanos of Chile.

The quetzal is the beautiful bird of Guatemala, the brilliant green bird with the long plumes, which dies of grief when it falls captive or when its tailfeathers are broken or injured. It is a bird which gleams in the light, like the head of the hummingbird, which seems made of precious stones or iridescent jewels which in one light are topaz, in another opal, and in still another amethyst. And when, in the travels of Le Plongeon, one reads tales of the Maya princess Ara, who would not love the prince Aak because for love of her he killed his brother Chaak; when, in the story of the Indian Ixtlilxochitl, one sees come to life the royal cities of Mexico, Tenochtitlán and Texcoco, elegant and rich; when, in the *Recordación Florida* of Captain Fuentes, or in the Chronicles of Juarros, or in the History of the conquistador Bernal Díaz del Castillo, or in the Travels of the Englishman Thomas Gage, we seem to see before us, in white garments and with children by the

⁷ From "Las Ruínas Indias", in "Flor y Lava", Paris, n.d.

hand, reciting verses and erecting buildings, the crowds of the cities of that period, the wise men of Chichén, the potentates of Uxmal, the business men of Tulán, the artisans of Tenochtitlán, the priests of Cholula, the loving masters and gentle children of Utatlán, that refined race which lived in the sunshine and never locked their stone houses—then one seems not to be reading a book with yellowed leaves, where the *s*'s are like *f*'s and words are used with much ceremony, but rather to be watching a quetzal die, uttering its last cry at seeing its tail broken. With the imagination one perceives things that cannot be seen with the eyes.

One makes friends reading those old books. In them there are heroes, and saints, and lovers, and poets, and apostles. There pyramids are described greater than those of Egypt; and mighty deeds of those giants who overcame wild beasts; and battles of men and giants; and gods who passed through the wind sowing the seeds of nations over the earth; and abductions of princesses which set nations to fighting until wiped out; and hand to hand fighting, with a fierceness which does not seem human; and the defense of decadent cities against strong men who came from northern lands; and the varied, pleasant, and hardworking life of their theatres and temples, their canals and workshops, their courts and marketplaces. There are kings, like the Chichimec Netzahualpili, who killed his sons because they broke the law, just as the Roman Brutus let his be killed; there are orators who stand forth weeping, like the Tlaxcaltec Xicotencatl, to beg their people not to let the Spaniard enter, just as Demosthenes stood forth to beg the Greeks not to let Philip enter; there are just monarchs like Netzahualcoyotl, the great poet-king of the Chichimecs, who, like the Hebrew Solomon, knew how to build magnificent temples to the Creator of the world, and how, with the soul of a father, to implant justice among men. There are sacrifices of lovely maidens to the invisible gods of the sky, just as there were in Greece, where at times the sacrifices were so many that it was unnecessary to build an altar for the new ceremony because the pile of ashes from the last pyre was high enough to receive the victims of the officiating priests; there were sacrifices of men, like that of the Hebrew Abraham, who bound his son Isaac to the faggots to kill him with his own hands, because he believed he had heard voices from heaven commanding him to thrust the knife into his son, in order to satisfy his God with this blood; there were mass sacrifices, like those in the Plaza Mayor, before bishops and king, when the Inquisition of Spain burned men alive with a profusion of firewood and processions, and the ladies of Madrid watched the conflagration from balconies. Superstition and ignorance make barbarians of men in every nation. And of the Indians the conquering Spaniards have said more than was just about these

matters, for they exaggerated or invented defects in the conquered race so that the cruelty with which they treated it might seem meet and proper to the world. One should read at the same time what was said of the sacrifices of the Indians by the Spanish soldier Bernal Díaz, and by the priest Bartolomé de las Casas. The latter is a name which one should cherish in his heart like that of a brother. Bartolomé de las Casas was ugly and thin, of confused and precipitous speech, and with a long nose; but in the clear fire of his eyes could be discerned his sublime soul.

—JOSÉ MARTÍ.



Photograph by American Photo Studios.

A CUBAN LANDSCAPE.

Viñales Valley in Pinar del Rio Province, dotted with royal palms and unusual limestone rock formations, gives the appearance of a gigantic sunken garden.

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

DISCONTENT AND PROMISE *

"I shall do great things; what they are I know not." These words of the mad king form the motto which we have been inscribing for a hundred years on our banners of spiritual revolution. Shall we conquer the discontent which provokes so many successive rebellions? Shall we fulfill the ambitious promise?

Scarcely had we emerged from the dense colonial fog into the burning sun of independence, before we shook off the spirit of timidity and declared our mastery of dominion over the future. A virgin world, newborn liberty, republics in ferment ardently consecrated to an immortal utopia: here were to be created new arts, a new poetry. Our countries, our life as free men, craved expression.

In 1823, before the great events at Junín and Ayacucho and while political independence still hung in the balance, Andrés Bello was proclaiming spiritual independence: the first of his *Silvas americanas* summons poetry, "the mistress of nations and of kings", to abandon Europe—light and misery—and to seek on these shores of the Atlantic the healthful air pleasing to its inborn simplicity. The form was classic, the content revolutionary. It was this *Alocución* that Juan María Gutiérrez was going to put as a symbol at the head of our first great anthology, *La América Poética*, published in 1846. The second of Bello's *Silvas*, three years later—which sang the praise of agriculture in the Torrid Zone while hiding behind the placid imperial shades of Horace and Virgil the "return to nature", that catchword of the revolutionaries of the eighteenth century—traced the whole nineteenth century program of material aggrandizement, with culture as the mean and the crown. Nor was that patriarch, a creator of civilization, alone in being kindled by the spirit of new life and prophecy: the annunciatory bonfire leapt, like that of Agamemnon, from summit to summit, and glowed in Olmedo's hymn of victory, in the novels and the humanitarian and democratic campaigns of Fernández de Lizardi, even in the *cielitos* and the dialogues in gaucho style of Bartolomé Hidalgo.

A few years later appeared another new generation, forgetful and discontented. In Europe, as we used to hear or to see for ourselves, romanticism was awakening the voices of the nations. Our fathers seemed absurd to us when they sang in classic odes the romantic adventure of our independence. Romanticism would open the way to truth, would teach us to fulfill ourselves. That was the belief of Esteban Echeverría, a minor artist except for a few descriptions, stark in outline and with disconnected content, but an eminent theorist. "The spirit of the century", he said, "today leads nations to free

* From "Seis ensayos en busca de nuestra expresión," Buenos Aires, 1928.

themselves, to enjoy not only their political independence, but their philosophical and literary independence as well." And among the youths who followed him, who belonged to that Argentine generation which was the spokesman for the continent, there was always much talk of "citizenship in art as well as in politics", and of "literature which flies the national colors."

Our literature avidly absorbed water from all the native streams: nature; rural life, stationary or nomadic; native tradition; memories of the colonial epoch; great deeds of the liberators; the political agitation of the moment. . . . The flood of romanticism lasted a long

THE HOUSE OF COLUMBUS, SANTO DOMINGO.

Through a ruined window of the house of Diego Colón, eldest son of the great admiral, is seen the remains of an arched door. Built between 1510 and 1514, it is one of the oldest structures built by Europeans in the New World.



Courtesy of Luis Vázquez-Torné.

time, too long, since under the pretext of inspiration and spontaneity it fostered laziness and drowned many seeds which it hoped to nourish. . . . When the waters began to recede, not after the Biblical forty days, but after forty years, they left behind great patches of weeds, some exotic shrubs, and two luxuriant trees, sturdy as the ombú: *Facundo* and *Martín Fierro*.

Discontent finally brought about the requisite insurrection: the generation which scandalized the public under the modest title of *modernist* revolted against romantic laziness and imposed upon itself severe and discriminating rules. It found its examples in

Europe, but did its thinking in America. "[This generation] is like a family," said one of it, Martí the fascinating, the dazzling, "it began by imitating the *recherché* and has reached the stage of fluent and concise elegance and of the sincere artistic expression, brief and clear-cut, of personal sentiment and direct creole judgment." Creole judgment! Or again, "The kind of literature we must seek is that which broadens and reveals, that which draws from the bleeding pulp the sound and juicy kernel of the tropical almond, that which fortifies and uplifts the heart of America." Similarly, although Rubén Darío hated, in the introduction to *Prosas profanas*, "the life and times in which it was his lot to be born", yet he founded the *Revista de América*, whose name describes its program, and in the course of time became the author of the iambics against Roosevelt, of the *Canto a la Argentina*, and of the *Viaje a Nicaragua*. And it was Rodó, the enthusiastic commentator of *Prosas profanas*, who later declared, in a study of Montalvo, that "only those have achieved greatness in America who have developed, by word or by deed, an American sentiment."

Now, thirty years later, there is again in Spanish America a restless generation, irritated with its elders and promising to work seriously in search of a genuine expression.

—PEDRO HENRÍQUEZ UREÑA.

ECUADOR

ON PICHINCHA⁹

One day a boy climbed to the heights of Pichincha; he was only a child, yet he knew where he was, and had his head and his heart full of the battle. The mountain in the clouds, with its scarf of mist falling down to its waist, seemed a masked giant, terrifying. The city of Quito, at its feet, lifted its thousand towers to heaven: the green hills of this lovely city, fresh and graceful, surround her like gigantic uncut emeralds, set with apparent carelessness in her broad girdle. Rome, the city of hills, has neither so many nor more beautiful ones. A sound barely reached the heights; it was confused, vague, fantastic, that sound composed of a thousand sounds, that voice composed of a thousand voices, always emanating and ascending from great towns! The ringing of bells, the beat of hammers, the neighing of horses, the barking of dogs, the creaking of carts, and the thousand laments coming from no one knows where, sighs of shadows, uttered perhaps by hunger from its fireless dwelling and rising on high to mingle with the laughter of pleasure and infect it with melancholy. The boy heard, heard with his eyes and with his soul, heard

⁹ From "Los héroes de la emancipación de la raza hispanoamericana—Simón Bolívar", in "Siete Tratados", Garnier Hermanos, París, n.d.



QUITO, ECUADOR.

"At the feet of Pichincha the city of Quito lifts its thousand towers to heaven: the green hills of this lovely city surround her like gigantic uncut emeralds."

the silence, as it says in the Scriptures; he heard the past, he heard the battle. Where had Sucre been? Perhaps here, on this very spot, on this green stair; there is where he passed by, farther over is where he broke into a run, and finally, on that side he shot at the fleeing Spaniards.

The boy caught sight of a white bone, a bone half hidden amid the grass and the wildflowers; he went over and picked it up. Had it belonged to one of the royalists? Had it belonged to one of the patriots? Was it a holy or an accursed bone? Child, do not say that! There may have been accursed men; there are no accursed bones. You should know that death, although cold as ice, is a fire which purifies the body; first it corrupts it, decomposes it, dissolves it; then it deodorizes and cleanses it. The bones of the dead, washed by the rain, shaped by the air, polished by the hand of time, are the remains of the human race, not of this nor of that man. No, the bones of our enemies are not enemy bones; they are the remains of our fellow men. Child, do not throw this away in disdain. . . . The bones of our fathers who died on Pichincha are now the prize of nothingness; their very dust has taken a more subtle form, turned into spirit, and disappeared into the invisible amphora in which eternity gathers the members of the human race.

—JUAN MONTALVO.

EL SALVADOR

THE SHADE OF THE WILD FIG TREE ¹⁰

The wild fig tree forms an integral part of the rural home. It is something which is included in the inventory, together with the yoke of oxen, the milch heifer, a couple of fattening pigs, five or six hens, the pair of indispensable roosters, the scrawny dog—a wonder in following the track of the mountain lion—with the pichwood plough, shiny from much handling, with the musket and the pair of farm knives. The fig tree—young or already decaying; thick with shining foliage or bare and crippled; pyramidal in shape or stretched out like an enameled parasol—is a part of the “assets” of the laborer.

Inextricably interwoven with it are memories which, when recalled, seem pictures painted in gay colors, dimmed by a veil of intense melancholy.

It was under the fig tree that there was dancing and singing, and libations were poured to everyone's fill at the marriage of the oldest daughter, who flew far from the farm, far from the protective shade of the family tree, and went with her partner, a decent hard-working youth, to build her nest among the coffee estates on the slopes of the volcano. It was under the fig tree, too, that one tragic night, the friendly neighbors helped to keep vigil over the body of the little one who had been carried to heaven by the last smallpox epidemic.

Under the fig tree stands the unyoked cart, its tongue pointing to heaven, stiff as a poker. And within the cool shade are the receptacle for husking rice; the watering-trough for the hens, machete-hewn from the trunk of an avocado tree; the stone on which the machetes are sharpened. There too stands the wooden sugar press, covered with a coat of bagasse, and the oven with its little iron kettle, protected by a dented sheet of zinc.

Under the fig tree gather the family and their relatives from all around; there, in the green corn season, they feast on the *huacales* of succulent corn, washed down with a few swallows of the local drink; dance some turns of the boston or the mazurka; and, to the rhythm of the accordion or the guitar, sing those tunes which, in their simplicity, are as fragrant as damp mignonette.

When the saint—one of the many which, in the arms of messengers, traversed the whole valley—when St. Jerome, St. Lucy, St. Anthony of the Mountain, or St. Nicholas the Bishop honors the farm with his visit, it is under the fig tree that the feasting takes place. It is there that the assembled guests attack with formidable appetites the platters of smoking tamales, the golden cakes, the spongy corn bread, the savory cheesecakes, at the same time emptying great pots of coffee and bottles of national liquor which pretends to be vermouth.

¹⁰ From “El libro del trópico”, Imprenta Nacional de El Salvador, 1915.

Under the fig tree slumbers the farmhand as he waits until the heat of the sun shall have been spent before he takes up his task again. There, pillowed on sprawling roots and comfortably couched on earth littered with wisps of dry straw, he lies stretched out snoring, lulled by the droning of the swarm of bees which haunt a deep crevice in the trunk of the protecting tree.

In the afternoons, all the farm hands congregate there after stopping work, and gather in a circle around their rustic meal; and there jokes pass, spicy remarks fly around, crude stories are told, and sorrows

AN AMATE TREE OF EL
SALVADOR.

The amate, or wild fig tree, "forms an integral part of the rural home of El Salvador. Without the tree, something would be missing in farm life."



of rural homes are brought to light. The shade of the fig tree serves these poor folks as a sort of club. Without the fig tree in the patio, something would be missing in farm life.

Under the fig tree the Cross is set up at the coming of May, damp with the first rains. There the altar is raised, to which the fields send as offerings all the rich treasure of their fruits, their flowers, their foliage.

The fig tree sings. . . . The birds seek it out, as the safest place to build their nests. As morning dawns, confusion reigns in its branches. The cock, before jumping to earth, utters from its branches

his last clarion calls, which reecho sonorously. The hens cackle, the "buglers", which dwell high up in their garret, start a grand fight. The "buglers" are the most impetuous of birds. And the chattering *guacalchias*, muttering like old gossips, take counsel in the lower branches. In the afternoons, when the sun sinks behind the hills, the toad croaks and croaks, well sheltered in the same deep crevice where at the siesta hour the swarm of bees hovered, buzzing.

The fig tree is sacred, untouchable. There is no hatchet which would dare profane its trunk. Old age will, in due time, make it its prey. Its bark will fall off; the present crevice will become deeper and deeper; its branches will be injured; its leaves will say goodbye forever. Even the hens will abandon it; they will go in search of another shelter. And the poor fig tree, standing like a dusty skeleton, will remain alone, abandoned, in the middle of the patio, opposite the farm, whose thatched roof will never again be darkened by its shade.

—ARTURO AMBROGI.

GUATEMALA

GUATEMALAN ARCHAEOLOGY ¹¹

A United States writer has said that some countries having sublime historical associations are, like Egypt, without natural beauty, while in others where Nature is marvelous, like the Amazon Basin, there is nothing outstanding to unite their beauty to the progress of mankind. Guatemala offers, he continued, an inimitable harmony of unique landscapes and august evocations of the past; its land was made for the scholar and the artist.

He spoke the absolute truth. We can pass over its natural beauties because the theme is inexhaustible and words are inadequate to convey any idea of them. Of its historic monuments we can say something, although briefly.

Guatemala is one of the richest pre-Columbian archaeological fields. A large part of it was the home of one of the finest examples of American civilization, and there one of the three great Spanish capitals flourished; its ruins are unrivaled in extent and importance on the continent.

In territory today included within the boundaries of the Republic of Guatemala, the Maya civilization left monumental remains which have justly caught the attention of the modern world. Such are the great cities in the Petén region—Tikal, Naranjo, Piedras Negras, Uaxactún—older than those of Uxmal and Chichén Itzá in Yucatán.

Uxactún is the oldest city belonging to the Maya empire that has been found to date. The stele discovered in the principal temple on

¹¹ From "Un Pueblo en Marcha."



MAYA MONUMENTS IN GUATEMALA.

At Quiriguá and other sites, monolithic stelae remain as monuments to the Maya Empire.

the site bears witness to that, for on it is inscribed the date 14 Katún 8 Bactún of the Maya chronology, which corresponds approximately to the year 68 A.D.

Two hundred miles south of Uxactún lie the Maya ruins of Quiriguá, the most accessible of all since they are not far from the Atlantic railway, to the north of the Motagua River. There have been found nine stelae, seven altars, monolithic animals, and many embankments, terraces, and traces of buildings of carved stone, all dominated by a great temple on the top of a hill. These remains are all in what was the principal square of the city, where the nation celebrated its civic and religious festivals.

The oldest dated monument in Quiriguá belongs to the year 471 A.D. The remains of buildings and numerous beautifully carved monuments show that in its prime the city was one of great area and importance.

These ruins were first studied in 1840, by Catherwood, according to his traveling companion, John L. Stephens, in his book *Incidents of Travel in Central America, Chiapas, and Yucatan*. In 1857 they were visited by Dr. Karl von Scherzer, a German, who also wrote a brief description of them. Professor Maudslay took plaster casts of the Quiriguá monuments to Europe and published noteworthy reproductions of them in the second volume of the archaeological section of his *Biología Centrali Americana*. They have also been minutely studied by the United States scholar, Sylvanus G. Morley.

Another Maya center consists of the cities of Chaculá and Quen Santo, in the Department of Huehuetenango, which were carefully studied by the German professor, Eduard Seler.

On the Pacific coast, too, important remains exist. The ruins of Santa Lucía Cotzumalguapa, in the Department of Escuintla, were discovered in 1866. These monuments impressed the famous Colombian scholar, Dr. Pastor Ospina, who maintained that they antedated the emigration from Anáhuac (Mexico) and belonged to the mysterious civilization which sowed cities over the lands bordering the Gulfs of Mexico and of Honduras.

The ruins are magnificent and, according to Habel, contain the most interesting sculpture in the New World. Not far from them are the ruins of Pantaleón, studied by Dr. J. F. Bransford, of the Smithsonian Institution, and by Lieutenant Vreeland, U.S.N., who made drawings of the figures carved on the monoliths. Finally, and in the same zone, lie the ruins of El Baul, studied in 1923 by Dr. Waterman, a professor of archaeology of the University of California.

—JOSÉ RODRÍGUEZ CERNA.

HAITI

THE CITADEL LAFERRIÈRE ¹²

I have already said, and I repeat the statement with pride, that it was a Haitian officer, Henry Besse, who built it. If the value of a work lies in the effort made and the difficulties overcome, the Citadel Laferrière is a masterpiece in the broadest sense of the word. We are nearly five thousand feet above sea level; unfathomable abysses surround us on all sides; the path which has led us to this summit is invisible, and one would say that there were no longer any means of returning to the world. Now look behind you. There is the mighty wall, a mountain upon another mountain, which lifts almost to the skies its crown of wild juniper, growing as it lists on the broad expanse. The wall, pierced with several regular rows of embrasures, still displays a few melancholy silent copper mouths which have escaped the junk shop.

¹² From "Choses Haïtiennes", Paris, 1896.



Official photograph, Public Works Administration, Haiti.

THE CITADEL OF LA FERRIÈRE, HAITI.

On a mountain peak, surrounded by deep abysses, is situated the stronghold erected in 1806 by Henri Christophe, the King who rose from slavery.

If the eye measures in astonishment the height of these walls, if their breadth provokes wonder, the enceinte is no less worthy of admiration, for it could contain an army. Well then! Make an estimate, compute how much effort, how much patience and genius was necessary to transport here to this height the materials needful for such an enterprise—all these stones, all this iron, all these cannon, everything that went into this prodigious entablature imposed by the will of one man on this mountain.

It was on the Bonnet à l'Évêque that the Citadel Laferrière was built. When it is exceptionally clear, the fortress may be seen from Cap Haïtien, but that is seldom, for clouds almost always hide it from view. Christophe had dreamed of making it the highway of Haitian independence. Obsessed with the thought that France would try to reconquer the island, he wanted to build a stronghold which would be the center of resistance, the nucleus from which the defense would radiate at every point, and where, in case of supreme danger, the defenders of their country could take refuge and await behind impregnable ramparts the dawn of new days. No expense was spared to make the Citadel worthy of its destiny. Christophe felt that he was the soul of his people incarnate, and this belief made him insensible to all other considerations. With mystic disregard he lavished both his treasure and the life of his subjects. History gives

figures for neither the one nor the other; it is evident that countless human creatures, as well as much money, were spent there. Legend has it that more than twenty thousand persons perished while working on that modern pyramid. Let us not follow legend blindly; it has seen in Christophe only a savage and sanguinary tyrant. As far as legend is concerned, the Citadel was only a pretext invented to decimate his people. It is impossible to see what profit he could derive from that. But, when hatred and passion alone do the reasoning, they are incapable of passing a fair judgment on a nation, a man, or a deed.

Full of his idea, strong in the conviction that he was building the capitol where, in a last assault, the Haitians could in the end repulse the invader, Christophe, his eyes fixed on his dream, probably did seem inexorable, immovable. He directed, he supervised the works in person. The smallest digression, the slightest negligence were severely punished. Everyone put his hand to the plough. The farmers dug ditches and carried stones; the women and the children carted sand and mortar; and Christophe's officers watched over the squads lest zeal should flag. . . .

Laferrière was built in vain, because events took a course which, at the time, it was difficult and would indeed have been imprudent to foresee. Its erection was, none the less, incontestably in accord with contemporary logic. That it never served any purpose matters little. It is and will remain one of the most beautiful songs in our heroic cycle.

Yet, is its uselessness a proven fact? Beside and beyond its strategic value, the Citadel is a living example of Haitian genius. It proves the endeavor of which that genius is capable and what can be expected from it. Were that the only result, it should not be scorned. For, just as one tests a piece of steel to be sure of its quality, it is not irrelevant to test the strength of a people. Christophe did so, and that is the philosophy behind the monument to be seen on the crest of the Bonnet-à-l'Évêque. It was a lofty philosophy of effort, of toil, of discipline, and of the code that he applied to himself in order to make it prevail in his dominions.

—FRÉDÉRIC MARCELIN.

HONDURAS

SANTA LUCÍA AND LOS ANGELES VALLEY ¹³

Any one leaving Tegucigalpa and wishing to spend pleasant days and quiet nights should go eastwards, climb the steep slope of Mololoa, pass through Santa Lucía, and stop in the picturesque Los Angeles Valley.

¹³ From "Lecturas Nacionales", compiled by Miguel Navarro h., Tegucigalpa, 1931.

The road . . . passes among woods of pines and poplars, oaks and live oaks. . . . Just after passing the peak of Mololoa the landscape changes; nature is more beautiful and the atmosphere purer and clearer. From the summit, where there is a rude cross, erected by a devout old man, Tegucigalpa is seen for the last time. A little farther on, there is an agreeable surprise: the view of Santa Lucía almost opposite, on another mountain, for the two are of almost the same height. . . . This historic and picturesque town looks like a white nest hanging from the topmost limb of a stout tree. Only a miner, or one of those feudal lords who sought the places where eagles nest to build their castles, would have fixed his gaze on that site, it is so lofty and so craggy. The town seems an irregular amphitheater, its seats formed by rows of houses, almost all with red roofs and the whitest of walls. By day, when the sun lights up the landscape, the sight of Santa Lucía on the summit, surrounded by green pine groves and dominating the slopes, is beautiful, interesting; and it is no less so by night, when from each door and each window shine rays of light, together resembling the altar illuminations on Maundy Thursday. Santa Lucía was one of the first mines worked by the Spaniards, and is among the richest in the Republic. The ridge rising to the left of the village church has produced many thousand pesos, and there is no doubt that all through the hills are rich veins of silver. Today the mine is hardly operated, although it has always given a good profit.

Santa Lucía was settled by Spaniards of unmixed race. Historic traditions testify to that, as does the dominant type of its present residents. There is no record of the families who came to dwell there and enrich themselves from this mine. There is only a wooden tablet recently found in the church, near the confessional; on it is carved, with a wealth of sculptural adornment, the following inscription:

Here lies buried Doña Isabel Barba, the wife of Diego Mexio.—Died July 25, 1598, at the age of 24 years. Offer a pater noster for the repose of her soul. . . .

Although it is true that we have only scratched the surface of our extensive and extremely rich mines, it is also a fact that the Spaniards took from our soil almost all its superficial wealth. The hills of Santa Lucía bear traces of extensive former workings. Records show that in Spanish times more than a million marks of silver were taken from this mine. In the year 1739 alone there were sent to the national mint at Guatemala 35,159 marks $5\frac{7}{8}$ ounces, which at the lowest rate of conversion—eleven coins and a half, as was then the custom—would make the production worth 302,217.40 pesos. Most of that sum was taken from the former District of Tegucigalpa.

So many millions were extracted that, according to a well-known story, at one single time the people of Santa Lucía presented to a king of Spain [Philip II] 500,000 duros! It is said that the favored



A MINING TOWN OF HONDURAS.

"The town seems an irregular amphitheater, its seats formed by rows of houses, almost all with red roofs and the whitest of walls."

monarch reciprocated this magnificent gift by presenting them with a crucifix, a silver gilt chalice, an incense burner, a candlestick, and some candelabra, all of the same metal. In those times such a gift was worthy of a generous king, and was considered priceless by the believers of the period. It is true that any one would have agreed to make an even more splendid gift than that of the king, in return for the aforesaid half million; but that a sovereign of those times should deign to acknowledge a present from his vassals was something of great worth, something which would never cease being a topic of conversation, as it is indeed to this day. . . .

The mountain which separates Santa Lucía from Los Angeles Valley is the roughest and highest section of the road, but one hardly notices that, since he proceeds with his gaze fixed on the magnificent view. The whole mountain is covered with tall, graceful pines; the oldest are hung with a grayish parasitic growth, so that they look like the giants of oriental tales with long beards sweeping the ground and long locks covered with the snow of age. The air on those heights is of the purest, and is impregnated with the penetrating and resinous

odor of the pines. As the wind, blowing hard or gently, passes through the branches of these century-old forests, it makes what we call "the music of the mountain."

On descending the slope the town and almost all Los Angeles Valley can be discerned. One's eyes welcome that splendid smiling aspect of nature. The panorama is enchanting: wide horizons mingle with or disappear in the dark green of distant pine groves and the sapphire blue of a cloudless, serene, and brilliant sky. The valley, which is quite extensive, is surrounded with lovely mountains. The town is built almost entirely about one long street; from the heights the coquettish white houses can be seen among groves of tall, thick orange trees, which in the spring perfume the Valley with the delicious aroma of their blossoms.

—MARCO AURELIO SOTO.

MEXICO

THE COLONIAL CITY: MEXICO¹⁴

From the towers of the cathedral, the city of Mexico is a vast gray plain, furrowed in all directions by the straight or sinuous lines of its streets. Its distant confines are barely distinguishable to the naked eye, and the most distant houses melt, at times, into the horizon. In the afternoon, at dusk, when the light of the sun gleams only on the tops of the buildings and the streets begin to lose their outlines among the oncoming shadows, Mexico is once again the old colonial city of some centuries ago. From up there, the evidences of modern life are lost; the details which recent civilization has imposed disappear, and only the gray bulk of the buildings and the green blur of the parks are discernible, as on a misty canvas. But against the fading afternoon light stands out, clear and unmistakable, every prominence in town, everything which rises above the roofs and outlines of the buildings.

And there, on every side, are towers, the ancient towers of churches, convents, chapels, and hermitages; high two-storied towers, slim and tall, pierced by light as it passes through their windows; squat towers, like stone cubes, which shelter a single bell; towers with pointed finials topped with iron crosses; round towers with stone crosses; gray towers, blackened by the rain and the ages; or white ones shining in the sun, residents of the humbler quarters, neighbors of simple folk, of miracle-working Christs, and of the bees which store honey in their corners; some, with sturdy bronze bells green with age; others, with tiny bells that whirl around thick beams painted with vivid colors, and little bells that never cease calling,

¹⁴ From "Lecturas para Mujeres", selected by Gabriela Mistral, Mexico, 1924.



THE FORMER CONVENT OF CHURUBUSCO, MEXICO CITY.

"On every side in Mexico City are towers and domes; high two-storied towers pierced by light, squat towers like stone cubes, gray towers blackened by the rain and the ages, brilliant towers with hoods of glazed tile."

shaken by the ropes which pious women pull from the sacristy; brilliant towers, with hoods of glazed tile; towers of varicolored majolica with iron grills, like Arabian belvederes; towers whose niches shelter dusty terra cotta saints, either forsaken, now the resting-place of bats, or gay, bedight with paper flowers and garlands of oak leaves.

And the domes! The dome of La Santísima, which looks like a compote; the dome of La Soledad, massive and grave, with white

medallions on its blackish stone; the dome of the Chapel of Our Lord of Santa Teresa, tall and slim, with its little lantern resembling a Chinese jar; that of Loreto, a snail sticking out the two sharp horns of its turrets; that of Santa Inés, which always wears festive garb, with orange and blue trimmings; that of La Enseñanza, the biretta of a doctor of theology; that of La Encarnación, which supplicates heaven in white enamel; that of Santa Catalina, broad and flat, with a fringe of windows; low and polygonal domes; domes girdled with pilasters; egg-shaped domes; vast domes made to shelter below, at the altars of the churches, the magnificence of the liturgy, and to reecho in their vaulted walls the thunder of the organs; or small and simple domes, welcoming the voices of children in white afternoons during the month of Mary, and the cooing of doves on hot July mornings in the valley of Mexico.

On every hand the salients of the buildings offer a vision of the colonial city. Now it is the finials which rise above the facades of mansions, of old schools, of temples; those over there belong to the house of the conquistador; these others, to the royal palace; here still stand those which top the Seminary of San Ildefonso; over there those of the home of the Conde del Valle de Orizaba are still distinguishable; see how, like Chinese porcelain turrets, those of the House of Tiles stand out. And all are of stone, white, gray, black; finials which seem the caps of graduates of the ancient university; rough Franciscan finials, made to crown fortresses and support the harquebuses that defended the Faith; baroque pinnacles with pompous ornamentation; pyramidal battlements; barbarous finials, worked by conscientious artisans; finials shaped like balls, like flames, like leaves, like censers, like urns. . . .

Down below, the city has lost its contours; the people are shadows which glide hurriedly along; the Angelus sounds; from the streets rises a dull murmur of voices and of wheels; over the western hills a violet light is slowly fading; the towers, the domes, the battlements are outlined against the sky like silhouettes on a screen. At this hour and from the tower across the way, Don Francisco Cervantes Salazar must be contemplating the city, his old city. Below, the shade of Señor Don Carlos de Sigüenza y Góngora passes, on his way to his home in the neighboring street of the Hospital del Amor de Dios. Near the Palace are armed men; perhaps they are the halberdiers mounting guard. At this very minute, over there across the Plaza, the city council is discussing a grant of water which has been solicited by Antón Gallo, the architect. . . .

Suddenly, as if the curtain had gone up on a stage, ten thousand electric lights are lit throughout the city.

—GENARO ESTRADA.

NICARAGUA

MY VISIT TO NICARAGUA ¹⁵

After fifteen years of absence, I wanted to see my native land again. I felt a sort of homesickness for the tropics—for the landscape, for the people, for the things I had known in my childhood and early youth: the cathedral; the old house, roofed with Moorish tiles, in which my mind was awakened and I learned to read; my great-aunt, almost a hundred years old, who was still living; the childhood friends whom death had respected, and one or another of my pretty sweet-hearts, today plump and prolific mothers through the productive action of time. Fifteen years of absence . . . Buenos Aires, Madrid, Paris, and many comings and goings on the continent. I thought one fine day: I will go to Nicaragua. I remembered the feel of the torrid sun and the sight of the high volcanoes with lakes of blue water in their former craters, like vast Demetrian cups full of liquid sky. . . .

Once in the capital, which I found had been rebuilt and beautified during the years I had been wandering about, I left for a coffee hacienda in the nearby mountains. And there I enjoyed sights only to be found in those fertile and sunny lands where, in the free-blowing musical winds, the glorious dawns and sunsets, or the nights canopied with diamonds, wonder and marvel still flourish. . . .

I admired again the luxury of country life in the depths of the mountains. They are reached on horseback; the nearer ones are accessible by carriage. As the capital was left behind and the climb begun a mild fresh temperature succeeded the heat of the city. On either side of the road farms began to appear. I took pleasure in the fragrant vegetation, the coffee groves which have inspired poets in Central America and the West Indies. . . .

I was proud to see on both sides of the road the trees laden with their red fruit, some still full of white bloom like Dionysus' wands. . . .

The work in the mountains at harvest time has a kind of picturesque which would delight Francis Jammes. Women are usually employed at this, and in the little encampments established under the trees which protect the coffee, it is not unusual to see flocks of children, bearing witness to the fecundity of the race. There are hammocks stretched under the red fruit, and folksongs usually accompany the work. And what a glory of vegetation, what a triumph of life there is as far as the eye can see after the ascent to the height where the climate has changed, and the air is fresh, and the valleys extend like visions of Eden, and every shade of green is visible, and a loud murmur comes from the rustling banana plants, from the enor-

¹⁵ From "El Viaje a Nicaragua", Madrid, 1919.



THE CATHEDRAL AT LEÓN, NICARAGUA.

The remains of Rubén Darío rest in the Cathedral of León, the city where he spent part of his boyhood and where he died in 1916.

mous and oddly-shaped trees in which gray squirrels jump and cooing doves flit about, as well as different kinds of woodpeckers and all the winged fauna which would have charmed Ovid.

From the top of the sierras, covered with farms, Lake Managua may be discerned in the distance and, nearer at hand, Lake Nejapa. The huge volcanoes seem, in the clear atmosphere of dusk, extraordinary Fujiyamas traced on cloudless skies, and the light, diaphanous as in a fine watercolor, heightens the illusion. . . .

The banana plant lifts its cluster of green taffeta pennants, on which, when it rains, the water beats sonorous tattoos; and the different palm trees unfold, the low ones, like peacocks, with wide emerald fans; the taller ones, with airy wings; the very tallest, like feather dusters, proud, under their plumes, of the huge half-open flower, oily and golden, of the vegetable ivory or of the heavy pendent load of coconuts, whose fresh and delicious water is so delightful in the dogdays.

On broad and flat drying floors the coffee is spread in the sun, once it has been cut and gathered. Then it will pass to the hulling machine, which will leave it clean and ready to be packed in the hemp sacks destined for Yankee markets, for the ports of Havre or Hamburg.

The Nicaraguan yield is not as heavy as that of other neighboring countries; but Nicaragua produces that fine berry, superior even to Mocha for flavor and perfume, which is known as peabean coffee. A good cup of its black decoction, well prepared, contains as many problems and as many poems as a bottle of ink.

—RUBÉN DARÍO.

PANAMA

THE LIBERATOR¹⁶

About the middle of May, 1830, there descended the Magdalena River one of those crude vessels, known as *champans*, which at that time maintained communication between the coast and the plateau of New Granada. This boat was conveying from Bogotá to Cartagena a man whom his companions regarded with an air of mingled respect and anxiety.

He was short in stature, slender in build, and of swarthy complexion. His quick movements betrayed a nervous and active temperament, and yet there was in them something which betokened exhaustion of physique and of spirit. His large black pupils possessed that brilliancy which gives a flash as of lightning to the glance of the man who dominates by the inherent power of genius; but they were veiled by heavy eyelids under wide arching brows, giving the traveler's face an expression of vague yet profound sadness. The energetic countenance, whose sunken temples emphasized the majestic breadth of the forehead, was that of a young man, prematurely aged. The gray hairs which lent a glint of steel to his thick curly locks detracted from the youthfulness of the nobly sculptured head; and even more than they, the lines of pain written on the thin expressive lips, and the furrows which creased the somber forehead, bespoke one who had thought and suffered much.

The traveler was, in fact, a man into whose life of less than half a century had been crowded the fire, the action, and the passions which fall only to the lot of the protagonists in great dramas of history. In one intense and splendid life, whose reverberations filled his world and his time, this man ran the gamut of all the emotions which can afflict or exalt the human spirit. His early childhood was blessed with all the gifts that wealth and illustrious lineage can bestow. He crowned his youthful illusions with a happy marriage, only to know at the end of a year the anguish of losing the wife of his dreams. He visited the world's most famous capitals, as if impelled by outside forces to seek a sedative for his devouring restlessness in a refined sybaritism, and to behold in all this splendor a

¹⁶ From "The Liberator's Last Days", in BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, December, 1930.

forecast of glories to come. He mingled with the great and powerful of the earth, and was a friend of kings and sages. His spirit was kindled at the flame of freedom, which he swore to defend in his own country; he conspired for liberty, and became its devoted apostle. He endured fatigue and defied danger. He staked his life in a struggle with man and nature. He knew the bitterness of defeat, and he savored the thrill of triumph. He commanded armies and ruled nations. As a soldier he spent himself in the hardships of campaign life; as a statesman he kept vigil to establish on

THE BOLÍVAR MONU-
MENT, PANAMA.

This monument to the Liberator of six nations was erected by the American Republics to commemorate the centenary of the First Pan American Congress which met in Panama in 1826 at the call of Bolívar.



a firm foundation the nations he had liberated. Acclaimed by the multitude, he was the recipient of flowers tossed by women, of homage rendered by men. Crowns of laurel and of gold were fashioned for the victor, and swords of honor, their hilts flashing with diamonds, were hung at his side. At the behest of grateful cities and nations, goldsmiths wrought more medals than he could wear, and jewels which filled his coffers. He attained or found within his grasp the loftiest prizes to which pride or ambition can aspire. Supreme master in five separate countries, his keen vision could penetrate

into the farthest recesses of the hearts of men; he saw all the frailties and virtues, all the lights and shadows, which throw into high relief the players in the comedy of human life. He found friends who adored him, and comrades who betrayed him. His life was endangered by the bullets of the enemy and by the dagger of the assassin. He created a magnificent state which he saw fall to pieces under the stress of discord and rivalry. During his incomparable life he was overwhelmed with unprecedented honors, applause, titles, ovations, flattery, and satisfactions of every kind; yet mingled with the laurel and the incense were suspicion, deception, vituperation, calumny, persecution, and hatred, and all this bitterness came to a climax in the last years of his life. And so that resolution which misfortune could not break, that fortitude which the hardships of fifteen years of continuous fighting could not weaken, succumbed at last to the redoubled blows of misunderstanding and ingratitude. Suspected of being a usurper, accused of being a tyrant, he had resigned the government of a great nation and was now in search of health for his wasted body, peace for his aching heart. That unhappy traveler was Simón Bolívar, creator of Greater Colombia, liberator of Peru, father and founder of Bolivia.

—RICARDO J. ALFARO.

PARAGUAY

A COLONIAL CHURCH IN PARAGUAY¹⁷

Yaguarón is situated on the Paraguay River, about twenty miles from Asuncion. The present town was founded in 1536 at the time of the Spanish conquest by Diego Martínez de Irala and Father Francisco Miranda, who also started settlements at Itá and Atyrá and established chapels in each of these reductions, as Indian settlements of Jesuit or Franciscan origin or under the control of missionaries were known in colonial South America.

It was in Yaguarón that the first great church in the countries of the River Plate was built, between 1670 and 1720, and dedicated to San Roque. And since the fathers under whose direction it was erected had no stone suitable for a façade, they contented themselves with erecting a great dwelling, about three hundred and fifty feet long by eighty feet broad, with porticos twenty feet wide. The massive walls, more than three feet thick, were made of stones and brick set in a strong red mortar; embedded in them were heavy wooden up-rights. The roof rested on heavy carved beams, originally supported on a colonnade of round hardwood pillars, twenty-two feet high and

¹⁷ Translated and condensed from "Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay," Asuncion, May, 1931.

twenty inches in diameter, surmounted by stone capitals. These pillars were later replaced by others of fired brick.

This sanctuary, so severely simple on the exterior, is all glorious within. On entering it the visitor is overwhelmed by the rich ornamentation and the superb painted and gilded wood carving of its altars, which recall those in the Spanish baroque churches of this period. Still strong and unimpaired by the ravages of time, it stands to the glory of God and the honor of its builders.

At the end of the main aisle rises the magnificent retable blazing with gold, one of the most beautiful of the colonial era; the gilded carving stands out against a background decorated in greens, violets, reds, and grays. Its details harmonize with its architectural lines, the predominating style being Spanish baroque, sometimes called "colonial art," from the period in which it spread through South America from Paraguay.

This great retable produces an artistic effect especially pleasing because of the rhythm of its lines and the stepped arrangement of the lower central section, matched by the six stepped arches above, which produces an illusion of depth and thus enhances the figure of the Murillo-like Virgin placed against a sunburst of rays in relief. The altar, which has a curved front, is also in the plateresque style. The monstrance is enshrined in the midst of ornamental motives, clouds, and heads of delightful chubby-cheeked cherubs. Other details merge in the majestic effect of the whole. This retable, in its marvellous harmony of line, color, and gilding, is an excellent example of the beauty and opulence characteristic of colonial religious art, a product of artists trained in Europe, as is clear from the perfection of the carving, sculpture, painting, and the whole effect.

The gilt pulpit, hexagonal in form, is extremely interesting. The beautifully carved figure of an angel, with floating robes, supports on arms and head elaborate branches of foliage, on which rests the pulpit. The panels are divided by the usual twisted pillars with capitals, first of acanthus leaves, and then of several Doric moldings, which continue over the panels in the form of a cornice. The panels are rather unusual in their combination of painting and carving. A carved canopy and drapery above and at the sides frames the painted figure of a saint, while below is a cherub's head in low relief surrounded by rococo foliage.

The roof of the church is supported on crossbeams resting on wooden pillars, carved and painted and topped with carved capitals, extending into brackets. The pillars dividing the church into aisles are about twenty-six feet high, and each is made of a single piece of very hard wood.



Courtesy of the "Revista de la Sociedad Científica del Paraguay."

ALTAR OF THE CHURCH OF SAN ROQUE AT YAGUARÓN.

"The magnificent retablo blazes with gold; the gilded carving stands out against a background decorated in greens, violets, reds, and grays."

The windows are noteworthy for their carved wooden spindles, set into the window frame with the shutters, each of which is carved in plateresque style out of a single board.

The doors of the church are divided into ten panels and sculptured in low relief, the wood being cut away so as to leave moldings around

the edge and between the panels. These are arranged in pairs and exquisitely carved in plateresque style. Each half door is made of a single plank, six inches thick, and hung on wooden hinges. Even the locks are of wood.

Besides these works of art one finds in the church at Yaguarón some which were obviously executed after the Jesuits had left Paraguay. Their ingenuousness and primitive character proclaim that they are undoubtedly the work of Indians taught by Spanish masters.

In all the reductions, schools of art were established, for the Spaniards found among the Guaraní Indians a predisposition to the cultivation of art and religion which enabled them to profit by instruction.

These apt pupils carried on the tradition of the Spanish masters, first under the direction of the latter, and later, after the expulsion of the Jesuits, by themselves. They built churches and made altars, retables, pulpits, and other church furniture and carved images of the saints and of the Virgin. While sometimes their figure sculptures were strange in proportion and awkward in attitude and drapery, other examples have a high degree of perfection, in fine proportions, graceful drapery, and charming facial expression.

Thus the great church of San Roque at Yaguarón is not only a splendid shrine but an embodiment of the history of ecclesiastical art in Paraguay.

—PABLO ALBORNO.

PERU

AREQUIPA AND LAKE TITICACA ¹⁸

There can be few cities in America with more individuality than the white city of Melgar, the precursor of romanticism who had, early in the nineteenth century, the bright idea of raising the *Yaraví* of mere folklore to the heights of literary dignity. In Arequipa the fusion of Quechua and Spanish has been realized without ado. It is the most creole, the most subtly mestizo place in Peru. The houses, some luxurious and elegant, like the one which belonged first to the Jesuits and later to the Gutiérrez de Cossío family, today the property of the firm of Ricketts, have a rich beauty, and those of the Quirós, del Moral, and Ruiz de Somocurcio families offer an interesting and even paradoxical blending of Spanish and indigenous features, of the warlike and the conventual and ecclesiastic.

The whole city is of wrought stone, and up to now of vaulted construction. Each house seems to have something of fortress and of convent, thus revealing, to a great degree, what Arequipa was really

¹⁸ From "De Lima a Buenos Aires por Arequipa y La Paz", published in "La Prensa", Buenos Aires, August 13, 1933.

like in other days: the center of rogations and revolutions, of great fanaticism and great rebellions. A hospitable and beautiful city which invites daydreaming, Arequipa has, moreover, among its chief claims to fame, the prestige of being the cradle and the school of many of the eminent men to whom our law is so much indebted. . . .

After a hasty visit which quickened memories of former stays in Arequipa, I resumed my trip to Buenos Aires and on a clear morning, cold and cutting as a steel blade, I took the train for Puno. . . .

The film of the journey began to unroll slowly. We passed through Pampa de Arrieros, and the old story of ancient things came to mind. Here there were rest houses—today but miserable inns—when there was no railway and people traveled with a numerous and varied train of servants and provided their own sleeping-bags. Now graceful vicuñas watch affrighted the passing of the great reptile which winds along the rails, and sometimes run away fearfully, but with a silken grace in their panic and their movements worthy of these “damosels of the mountains”. The peak of Misti, like a great landmark, accompanied us all the way.

The afternoon began to be overcast; it thundered and hailed, and when we passed Vincocaya, we felt as if we were on the steppes. In the distance there were beautiful snow-capped peaks, and as we arrived at Crucero Alto the herds of alpacas leaped away. At Lagunillas the view was magnificent. At each turn made by the puffing train on its ascent appeared a lake reflecting the most delicate tones and tints of the approaching evening. . . .

We passed an hacienda, some ugly villages, some groves, and found a note of contemporaneous civilization in the bright colors of native country scenes. In Cabanillas, a picturesque and diminutive hamlet, resembling a Christmas tree ornament, some of the ancient tiled roofs, lovely in color and seigniorial in form, still remain. Farther on the vista widens; the landscape takes on a pale gold hue from the yellow of the wild grass, in gentle contrast to the lilac gray of the hills, at times broken violently by the wild splendor of a stormcloud. . . .

It was already dark when we arrived at Puno, where the customs labyrinth awaited us. Fortunately we had no trouble and soon were settled on the steamer *Inca*.

We were on the sacred lake—Titicaca! It was a splendid moonlight night, in which everything was magnified. . . .

We went out on deck—the spectacle was stupendous. The boat cleft the glorious silvery water, and the miraculous optical illusion of movement made it seem as if the floating islands of reeds, whence came strange cries, were passing rapidly by, like antediluvian monsters. Chacuito peninsula advanced like a gigantic animal. The cold was

penetrating, but the beauty of the night and the grandeur of the lake warmed our souls with enthusiasm.

I stayed on deck watching, watching that wonder of immensity, that sea on the heights with its indefinable element of divinity and mystery. But I could not carry out the adventure which I had planned—to spend the night there in vigil, in order not to lose a single overtone of the trip. Lightning began to play, thunder rolled, and suddenly the heavens opened, and it poured, how it poured! For a

A COLONIAL MANSION
IN AREQUIPA, PERU.

"The houses, some luxurious and elegant, have a rich beauty. Each seems to have something of the fortress and the convent."



moment I tried to withstand it. The scene had a tragic grandeur. We felt in our flesh remote prickings, and something hitherto slumbering deep in the most hidden and ancestral part of our nature began to awaken. The old, primitive life was there; myth and legend were dimly comprehended, and on that account in order to penetrate even farther into a revival of what no longer exists, we should have liked to stay to see the sunrise, and to understand and feel the why and the how of the solar myth of the Incas.

—JOSÉ GÁLVEZ.

URUGUAY

HYMN TO THE MAN OF THE FUTURE ¹⁹

In what type of man is thy race to take final form,
 America of the future,
 America the civilized,
 America the great?
 What will be the color of his eyes?
 What light from among the lights
 Of thy domain
 Will illumine the hollow of his orbits?
 Will the blue of thy skies predominate,
 The green of thy forests,
 The white of thine Andine snows,
 Or, once more, the darkness,
 That mysterious darkness which colors the eyes of thine Indians?

And his flesh, his body, what pigment is it to show?
 Will it be golden, through the power of thy wheatfields,
 Rosy and fragrant as the flesh of thy cedars,
 Or bronzed by the decisive influence of the sun?

In what type of man is thy race to take final form,
 America of the future,
 Civilized,
 Great?

What will he be like within?
 Firm and resolute as thy pampa dwellers?
 Will the stream of his life be flanked by beauty
 As are thy great rivers?
 Will he be cold as thy snows,
 Fiery as thy plains,
 Contemplative as thy pipes,
 Hard as thy stones,
 Dream-provoking as the curtains dropped on the horizon
 At the dawns and dusks of thy days?

Future man of America:
 Thou art the long-awaited;
 Thou shalt be the counterpoise, both Sancho and Quixote;
 Thou shalt be part of a human architecture,
 A living column
 To support tomorrow's building.

Future man of America:
 Thou art the long-awaited;
 Thou shalt come to the world bearing in thy hands
 A new heart like a great seed,
 To sow it in every breast;
 To scatter it flying
 To the four winds.

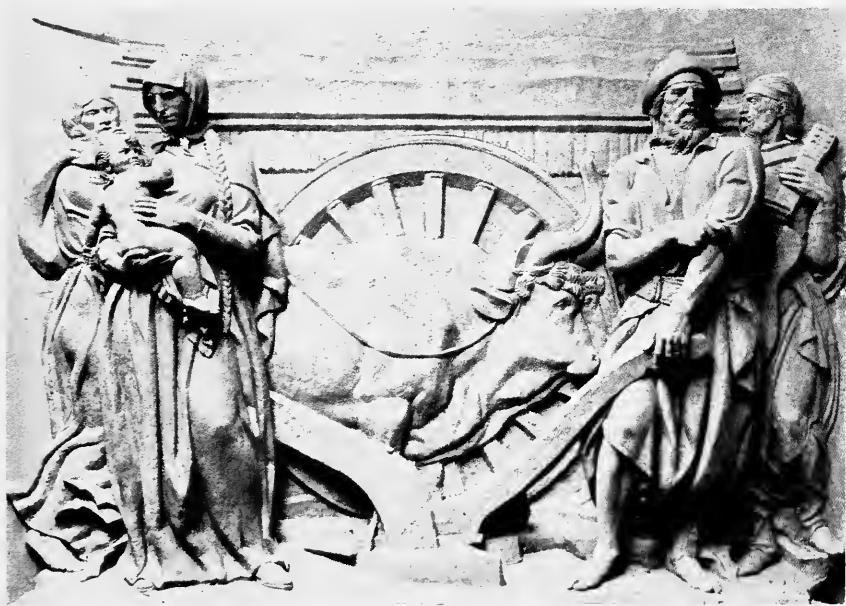
¹⁹ From "Intemperie", Montevideo, 1930.

Future man of America:
Thou shalt be beautiful, thou shalt be strong of body,
Thou shalt be good, thou shalt be wise;
The grief and the wisdom of all the dead
Will have prepared the way
For thine advent.

And thou shalt be the flower of all races;
Thou shalt be a human star,
With points connected
By the sparkle of every race;
Thou shalt be the flood and thou shalt be the ebb
Of every type of blood
Which beats in the veins of the world.

Future man of America:
Thou art the long-awaited!

—FERNÁN SILVA VALDÉS.



URUGUAYAN PIONEERS.

Various racial types are vividly portrayed in this sculpture by Zorrilla de San Martín—a bas-relief on his monument to the Gaucho in Montevideo.

VENEZUELA

MAMÁ BLANCA

I made the acquaintance of Mamá Blanca a long time before her death, while she was still under seventy and I not yet twelve. We struck up a friendship in true story-book fashion, each asking the other her name from afar, our voices half-drowned by the sound of the water singing and laughing as it fell on the plants in her patio. I had been amusing myself in the neighborhood, and as my curiosity was suddenly aroused by a silent old house, I entered the vestibule, pushed open the heavy door with its great knocker and wooden bars, stuck my head in between the two halves, and was absorbed in contemplating the pictures, the rocking chairs, various other articles and, in the center of the patio, a clump of flowerpots containing ferns and geraniums which, after climbing over the rim of the fountain, trembled contentedly in the spray which fell on them from a humble iron spout. Beyond them, framed in an open dining room window, the white-haired mistress of the house, in a white wrapper, was slowly taking a cup of chocolate, dipping ladyfingers and biscuits into it. For a short while I watched her as she sat there, as though she were the godmother of the flowerpots and the fountain; then, turning her eyes, she discovered my head thrust through the door. At once, surprised and smiling, she called from the table in a kindly manner, "Oho, very good, very good! So you're finding out about other people's lives, like sneak thieves and birds, which enter the room without anybody's permission! Don't go away; tell me what your name is, pretty little Miss Curiosity."

I shouted my name until she managed to catch it, and as she met the unexpected gaily and enjoyed the flavor of little everyday adventures, she shouted again in the same voice and with the same smile:

"My name is Mamá Blanca! Don't run away, now, don't run away; come here, come on in, come and make me a visit, and eat a bit of bun with me." . . .

Seated face to face at the great table, eating buns and nibbling ladyfingers, we chatted a long while. She told me that in her childhood she had played a great deal with my grandfather and his brothers and sisters, because they had been neighbors for many years; but that had been in another section of the city and at a time which now seemed so long, so very long ago! She thought I resembled people now dead, and when I, feeling impelled to say something, told her that in my house we had many roses and a parrot, Sebastian, who could say everybody's name, she showed me all the details of her patio and her corral, which had roses too; but instead of Sebastian, there were armies of ants, oh dear me! which were eating up all the flowers.



THE PATIO OF A CARACAS RESIDENCE

In Caracas, houses both old and new boast that delightful feature, the patio, around which the home life is centered.

Mamá Blanca was born on a sugar plantation which had an old-fashioned sugar-mill and a ground for drying and cleaning coffee; therefore she knew the secrets and intimate details of rural life so well that, like her brother La Fontaine, she could talk to or interpret ingeniously and gracefully the speech of flowers, toads, and butterflies. While she showed me the patio and corral, she was saying:

"Look, these daisies are coquettes who like to put on airs and be seen with their low-necked ball gowns. The little violets on this side of the patio are sad, because they are poor and have neither beaux nor gowns in which to sit at the window; they go out only in Holy Week, barefoot and wearing purple tunics, to keep their vows, just like the Nazarenes. Those little orchid misses are millionaires; there they go in their luxurious coach, entirely ignorant of earthly matters except for what they are told by the bees, who flatter them because they live at their expense."

And so it was that, my curiosity satisfied between violets and daisies, biscuits and ladyfingers, Mamá Blanca and I speedily struck up a great friendship. From that afternoon on, I would leave home at the slightest pretext, dash around the corner, enter the friendly vestibule, and begin to shout happily, like one who is bringing rare good news, "Here I am, Mamá Blanca, Mamá Blanquita, here I am!" . . .

With her poor trembling fingers she played the piano with great feeling, although her technique was faulty. A few days after we had become friends, she began the long daily task of giving me lessons, the two of us seated every afternoon at her old piano. After the class was over, as we ate together she used to say to me, as a sort of delicate compliment, "I always asked God to send me among my children at least one little daughter. Since He is stubborn and likes to perform miracles when it isn't any trouble, He has sent one to me now, at seventy."

It should be said that although Mamá Blanca's motherly love overflowed the bounds of her house and family and extended without exception to everything pleasant—persons, animals, or objects—she lived alone like a hermit and was as poor as a poet or a mouse. After her husband's death she had squandered her substance, making the most persistent and ill-fated investments in the stock market. She had been driven to it by a desire for a certain magnificent splendor in the future when, amid damask and purple, she would scatter gifts by the handful like fruit gathered without effort. Therefore, although her unsuccessful speculation never permitted her to enjoy the savor of wealth, which quickly palls and breeds disillusionment, on the other hand it did give her generously, through the blessed gift of imagination, the truly splendid part, that of the spirit, the very one which in the Gospel Mary was quick to choose.

Her sons regretted her isolation in such straitened circumstances, and kept after her to live with one or another of them in their commodious and more or less well appointed homes. Mamá Blanca would reply stubbornly, "Old people are a nuisance. Whenever they want to see me, they all can come at any time. Here is my vestibule door which, like a proper poor man's door, is always open." . . .

Music was always the great passion of her life.

Once, when she was absorbed and happy in the subtle labyrinth of Beethoven's Moonlight Sonata, she was informed that a man who owed her had come to hand over in person the money, which he had managed to accumulate through unceasing effort on his part and remittances from his children. When she heard the news, shouted by the old servant from the threshold of the room, Mamá Blanca barely turned her head, and replied with a severity reserved for such occasions, "I have told you a thousand times that I was never to be disturbed, under any circumstances, when I am at the piano."

"He says that —" the servant started to reply.

"Never mind what he says!" interrupted Mamá Blanca, "tell him to come back some other day."

And she went on roaming happily through her ethereal labyrinth, under the moon. Needless to say, the laggard debtor never returned. . . .

—TERESA DE LA PARRA.



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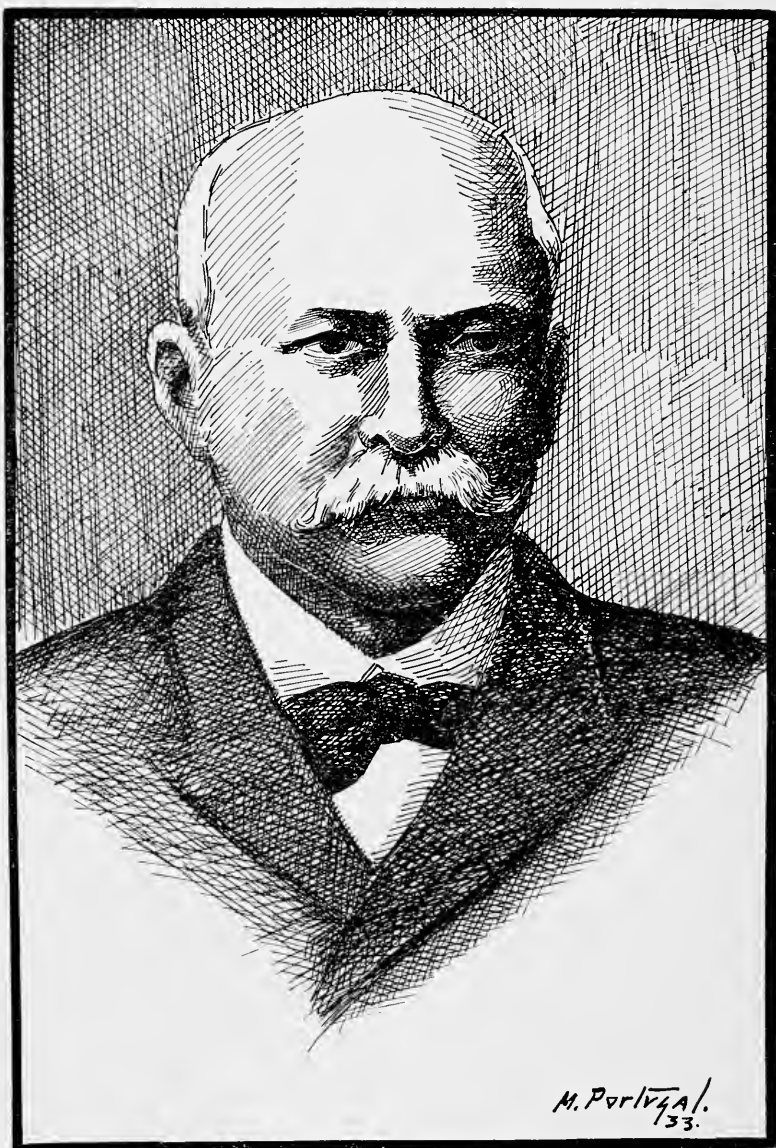
THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

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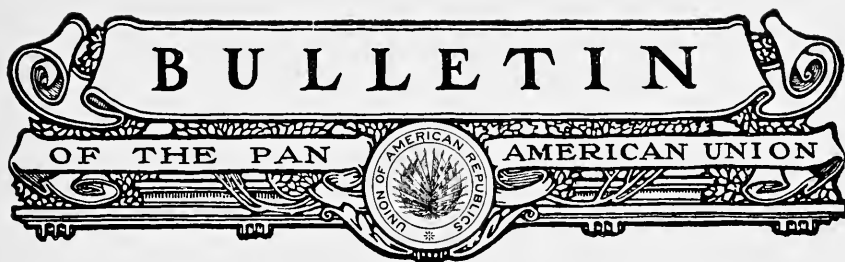
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Drawing by Max E. Portugal.

GABRIEL RENÉ-MORENO.

1834-1908.



VOL. LXVIII

APRIL 1934

NO. 4

A GREAT BOLIVIAN WRITER¹

By DR. ENRIQUE FINOT

Minister Plenipotentiary of Bolivia in Washington

WE are met here to commemorate, in a simple but significant ceremony, the first centenary of the birth of Gabriel René-Moreno, the prince of Bolivian writers and one of the outstanding figures of Hispano-American letters. Although comparable to Montalvo and Rodó, Moreno has never until now figured among either the individuals singled out by fame or those put forward for continental admiration. On that account the suggestion of a distinguished Chilean representative to the Seventh International Conference of American States, that the assembly at Montevideo pay tribute to the memory of this illustrious son of Bolivia, must have come as a real surprise to many. Neither the work of Gabriel René-Moreno nor his personality was of a character likely to make him popular. A modesty that bordered on shyness, an uncompromising devotion to the patient tasks of research and writing, and a supreme scorn for the seductions of renown were characteristic of that author, whose life was a model of probity, unselfishness, and love of truth and beauty. Historiographer and sociologist—and therefore twice historian—bibliophile and didactic writer, literary critic and accomplished stylist, this offspring of Bolivian culture deserves as prominent a place among the famous sons of America as the best of them for the scope and quality of his output.

Fate is unkind to those worshippers of the pen who are born in one country and transplanted to another. The personalities of such men, who are thus only incompletely identified with their surroundings, do not arouse that conflict of emotions which, in a man's own

¹ This address was read in Spanish by the author at a meeting held in the Pan American Union, Washington, on Tuesday, February 6, 1934, under the auspices of the Instituto de las Españas and the Inter-American Bibliographic Association. The translation was made by Beatrice Newhall, assistant editor. BULLETIN of the Pan American Union.—EDITOR.

land, serves to build the most solid and lasting of pedestals. Yet, although Moreno passed the greater part of his life in the capital of Chile, this does not mean that he failed to receive there the attention, the support, and the stimulus necessary for carrying out his work as a writer. But the special nature of his work—for the most part Bolivian, purely Bolivian history and bibliography—was not the fittest for arousing any other interest in him than the very relative one awakened by historical research, scientific speculation, or literary production, an interest always limited to a narrow circle of thinkers and men of letters. Nor was Moreno ever tempted by the attractions of public life which, in Chile itself for example, served to give meet and well-merited prominence to the figure of the illustrious Venezuelan Don Andrés Bello. Although Moreno had many friends and admirers in Santiago among his own teachers, colleagues, and students in the National Institute, and although in other American countries, especially in Argentina and Peru, he maintained close relations with those of his contemporaries who were devoted to bibliography and history, it cannot be denied that he was practically unknown to the rest of America. Therefore today's tribute, in which the Inter-American Bibliographic Association and the Washington Chapter of the Instituto de las Españas have joined, assumes the character of an act of reparation. The learned scientific group is honoring the eminent bibliographer whose name must always have been familiar to its members; while the Hispanic cultural institution takes this opportunity to share in the glory which belongs to the mother country by the exaltation of a product of her race and a herald of her tongue.

They are admirable pages, those of this authentic genius of South America, and it is sad to confess that they are hardly known to many scholars of the New World, and have been made only partly available in Spain by the publication of a single truncated volume which, with a prologue by Max Grillo of Colombia, was published in 1917 by Editorial America in its *Biblioteca de la Juventud Hispano-Americana*.

Doubtless because Moreno was still living in the period—which now seems somewhat remote—when the great Marcelino Menéndez y Pelayo wrote his *Antología de Poetas Hispano-Americanos*, also containing, by resolution of the Royal Academy, a general history of the literature “of every one of the regions discovered and civilized by Spaniards on the New Continent”, Gabriel René-Moreno does not appear in that work as a subject for study, or as a critic. Yet it is apparent from the numerous pertinent notes to the history of the colonial origins of Bolivian literature that his works were carefully consulted. Although the foregoing is sufficient to show the special consideration in which the illustrious Spanish critic held René-Moreno, it is interesting, nevertheless, to point out that that consideration did not prevent him from writing, in the eleventh chapter of his work,

this somewhat contradictory judgment: "The want of great centers of population and its lack of important ports make this republic [Bolivia] one of those in America least open to intercourse and communication with foreigners. In view of such unfavorable circumstances, together with the continual state of anarchy and civil strife in which the republic has existed, we do not believe that its literary output can be great; but what we can state as a fact is that the works of hardly any Bolivian author have reached Europe."

Gabriel René-Moreno's prose is, because of the noble and polished style in which it is presented, an exquisite morsel, a savory tidbit for delicate palates. This author may be described as one of the clearest and most discriminating of Hispano-American writers of all times. Even the most insignificant of his writings is expressed with the distinction and the elegance which are innate in all of his extensive production. Since there is nothing there that resembles the dull stupidity or the dogmatic bombast which in general characterizes the popular writers of America, it is not at all strange that his works, some out of print soon after they appeared, and all issued in small editions, should today be rare bibliographic items which collectors and scholars seek with great eagerness. And although the Library of Congress of the United States, one of the richest in the world, possesses an almost complete collection of the works of Moreno, and the Library of the Pan American Union has acquired ten of the twenty productions of this Bolivian author, it cannot be denied, after all, that the present tribute has more the aspect of revelation or discovery, than of consecration or apotheosis.

A rare example of Hispano-American authors was this Dr. Gabriel René-Moreno. In his style, all purity and elegance, the most discerning observer would not find the slightest trace of the words and neologisms from which as a rule the writers of Spanish America are never completely free, for they are more or less influenced by indigenous tongues or by the avalanche of barbarous provincialisms which, although many consider it a renewing and strengthening current bringing euphony, force, and color to the language, others hold to be anarchistical and degenerate, capable of altering the very structure of the language. Sometimes archaic in spite of its purity, the language used by Moreno was the product of a solid classic culture which, however, never led him into the paths of pseudocultured pedantry; he was, above all, the genuine product of the Spanish race, which had been preserved unchanged, as if by magic, in the very heart of South America.

The fact is that Moreno wrote as he had learned to speak in his native land, and as people still speak in that Santa Cruz de la Sierra whence he sprang. It would be impossible to give an exact idea of the personality of the writer and of his way of thinking without describing

the surroundings into which he was born and among which he lived the first years of his life. This we shall try to do methodically, as concisely as possible, and without any ulterior motive.

The Bolivian orient is the region included in the Departments of Santa Cruz and El Beni, and lies, approximately, between $10^{\circ}20'$ and $20^{\circ}27'$ south latitude and $59^{\circ}41'$ and $70^{\circ}30'$ west longitude. It



A SCENE NEAR SANTA CRUZ DE LA SIERRA.

In the vicinity of this city, the birthplace of Gabriel René-Moreno, the vegetation is luxuriant.

Drawing by Enrique Eguino E.

is characterized by broad plains covered with vegetation and furrowed by great rivers, many of them navigable. Its plains are carpeted with grass and its extensive forests are full of luxuriant tropical flowers. Its climate, generally warm, is markedly tempered by copious rains and southern winds, which refresh and purify the air. The most characteristic feature of this region consists, to be precise,

in the fact that the white population, made up largely of descendants of the Spaniards who conquered and settled the region, has kept its racial integrity; as they mixed to no appreciable degree with the native population, the result is a homogeneous whole, very proud of its Hispanic heritage. Throughout almost the entire region, especially in Santa Cruz de la Sierra, which was the initial nucleus, only Spanish is spoken; the vocabulary and phraseology are seventeenth century or earlier, and have no other corruption than the introduction of a few local words to designate examples of the native flora and fauna.

Santa Cruz de la Sierra was founded in 1560 at Chiquitos, by Captain Nuflo de Chaves, one of the conquistadors of the Río de la Plata and of Paraguay, to serve as capital of the province discovered and subdued by him. Its original site was sixty leagues east of its present location; the present Santa Cruz was built in 1595, under the name of San Lorenzo el Real. In a short time, however, the life there and its proximity to Charcas, the seat of its government, attracted to its precincts all the population of Chaves' earlier city, whose name was adopted and whose honors and privileges were inherited. Little by little Santa Cruz la Nueva, as it came to be called, was transformed from the obligatory residence of the brave and vigorous conquistadors who held at bay the hosts of untamed Chiriguanos in that region, into the quiet abode of rural aristocrats who devoted themselves to the agricultural tasks conducive to forming the simple life, but kept intact their pride of caste, a trait natural to the early lords of Santa Cruz and their descendants.

Any student would be surprised, even today, to observe in Santa Cruz de la Sierra and the outlying districts the current manner of speech, which is all the more picturesque and pure because there has been less contact with representatives of the outer world. The rustic and artisan of Santa Cruz still use today the speech of the Spain of three hundred years ago, and many of their words, phrases, and expressions are to be found only in the *Romancero* or in sixteenth and seventeenth century classics.

Our eager curiosity and our love of matters pertaining to our native land, not the love of cheap erudition, started us comparing, some time ago, the speech of Santa Cruz with old Castilian. In the course of our investigations we have arrived at comparisons both interesting and surprising, which this is not the place to demonstrate. By way of example we shall cite, however, some observations to give an idea of the basis for our convictions.

In Santa Cruz people say *la agua*, *la azúcar*, and *la habla*, without avoiding the cacophony which has disappeared from modern Spanish, just as the phrases *la Asia* and *la arte* are found in the *Libro de la Oración* of Fray Luis de Granada, in the *Expedición de Catalanes y*

Aragoneses of Don Francisco de Moncada and in the *Marco Bruto* of Quevedo. They say *cuantimás*, as did Santa Teresa; *puerta e calle*, *banda e música*, just like the *hueso e gallina* in the writings of the Arcipreste de Talavera; they say *traé, llevá, sacá, poné*, not as corruptions of *traed, llevad*, etc., as some have believed, but as it is written in the *Romance del Conde Claros* ("Levantá mi camarero, dame vestir y calzar . . .") and as may be seen in *Lazarillo de Tormes*: "Andá con Dios . . ." It is quite customary to hear them say in Santa Cruz *jediondo, jarto*, and other similar words, as well as *vía* (for *veía*), *cuasi, ñudo, riyó* and *güerfano*, as may be found in early writers from Alfonso the Wise to Cervantes, including Santa Teresa, Padre Mariana, and many more. The verb *recordar*, for *despertar*, is used in eastern Bolivia, as are many other words which are not the Americanisms that the dictionaries published in Spain would give one to understand, but really vestiges of an old and authentic Spanish which the centuries have outmoded.

It is also usual in Santa Cruz to suppress the terminations in *s* and to twist the endings *ado* and *ido*, into *ao, io*. This pronunciation can be heard in some regions of Spain, especially Andalusia, at the present time, surely as a vestige of old Spanish, since in the fifteenth century the phrase "Jesú me valga" and other like expressions were spoken and written.

The fondness for proverbs and Latin phrases—although their true meaning is often unknown—is also an evidence still enduring in those distant regions, not only of the popular manner of expressing one's self which Cervantes put in the mouth of Sancho in the dawn of the seventeenth century, but also of the new tendencies which invaded the language and decided its decadence at the beginning of the eighteenth century.

It is true that in other regions of America and in Spain itself they continue to use these and other archaic modes of speech, but nowhere else, it can safely be said, with such uniformity and persistency as in the Bolivian orient.

II

In the distant city of Santa Cruz, situated more than a hundred leagues from any other important center of population and in the very heart of South America, Gabriel René-Moreno first saw the light of day on February 6, 1834. His was a family of ancient lineage, directly descended from the conquistadors, who in that part of America were not merely bold and fearless adventurers, but Andalusian and Estremenian aristocrats of good family and unsullied pedigree. They were neither Pizarros nor Almagros, of obscure origin, but Chaves, Hurtados de Mendoza, Toledos, Holguines, and Suárez de Figueroa. Contrary to what might be expected, Santa

Cruz was not, during the colonial epoch, merely an agricultural center and an outpost against the savages. It was also a center of civilization and an oasis of culture; from its school, managed by Jesuit fathers, young Cruceños, crammed with Latin, were graduated from time to time, en route to the celebrated University of Charcas. Thence they returned later as literary men and maintained the

THE CATHEDRAL,
SANTA CRUZ DE LA
SIERRA.

In this church is preserved the
baptismal record of Gabriel
René-Moreno.



Drawing by Enrique Eguino E.

tradition of their caste on the twofold foundation of knowledge and ancestry.

Yet in spite of this periodic exodus of doctors, Santa Cruz did not lose its individual stamp or the conditions of patriarchal life which attracted the attention of such explorers and men of science as the Count of Castelnau and Alcides d'Orbigny. Its customs, simple yet seigniorial, the frank and hospitable character of its people, the

proverbial beauty of its women, and the exuberant charms of nature, always made that distant corner of Spanish America delightful.

Even more proud of his lineage and his untainted blood than most of his peers, our writer never ceased to express in his writings biting satire against or furious denunciation of any mixture of race, for in his opinion it was the origin of all the social and political evils of the young American democracies; he forgot that individualism, military leadership, and demagoguery are also a direct inheritance from the mother country. Thus, for example, in an essay on the Alto-Peruvian chronicler Fray Antonio de la Calancha, the author of the *Coronica Moralizada del Orden de S. Agustín en el Perú*, Moreno says without equivocation, "Calancha was born of pure Spanish blood, with no pernicious mixture."

Our writer was the son of Dr. José Gabriel Moreno, a distinguished man of great culture who took a prominent part in public life together with various other leading Cruceños, such as José Miguel de Velasco, Miguel María de Aguirre, and Basilio de Cuéllar, all of whom helped establish and organize the nation. The father was, however, a man of retiring and taciturn disposition, due, according to common report, to serious family disappointments. The other relatives of Don Gabriel René on his father's side had all been royalists, that is, supporters of the Spanish monarchy during the colonial struggle for independence, and some of them were very original characters, if not really insane. The story is told of an uncle of his, Don Marianito, an elegant and gallant youth, who, seeing that the proclamation of independence was inevitable, buried himself on his estate on the Urubó, a short distance from Santa Cruz, and turned farmer, refusing to return to the city except once a year, on Good Friday, when he would appear in the atrium of the cathedral "inside a dress coat whose huge collar hid his ears" and, carrying an immense candle, would follow the procession of the Holy Sepulcher. Another uncle, brother of this Don Marianito, was a member of the secular clergy and voluntarily went into exile in Mojos, dedicating himself to the apostolic but dangerous task of converting savages to the Catholic faith. Report has it that his maternal great great grandfather, Don Gabriel de Vargas, devoted his life to enterprises as pious as they were unproductive, and it is well known that he established at his own expense the annual festival of St. Lawrence Martyr, the patron saint of the city, and that he did not rest until he had seen the first cathedral bells cast.

With such forbears and such surroundings, it is not to be wondered at that Moreno, born when the tastes of youth followed paths quite different from those which had been followed by all those true Christians his forefathers, should decide to be a bibliophile and end as a scholar, philosopher, and misanthropist.

III

Although Gabriel René-Moreno devoted himself from his earliest youth to historical research and belles-lettres, he was not, as it might be thought at first, entirely indifferent to the political life of his country, although it must be said that his participation therein, as short as it was unpleasant for him, was limited to international affairs. The war of 1879, between Chile on the one hand and Bolivia and Peru on the other, found him living in the Chilean capital, and, because of his ties there, in particularly favorable circumstances for serving his country as intermediary in certain negotiations. The object of these was to dissolve the Peru-Bolivian alliance, with a view to defining the dispute between the real rivals, Chile and Peru, both of whom were interested in obtaining economic and political leadership in the southern Pacific during the struggle for the guano and nitrate deposits. According to proceedings instituted in Bolivia by Moreno himself, his participation in the matter was limited to carrying out the instructions of President Daza, that he should learn in Santiago and take to Arica the proposals of President Santa María. And because the Chilean proposition was refused by Bolivia in a noble manifestation of loyalty to her ally, the conduct of the intermediary was no less worthy and patriotic. Inflamed passions, nevertheless, accused him of breach of trust and of treason.

Moreno defended himself then with his pen as only he could do. His reputation was vindicated and his name was cleared beyond the shadow of a doubt, as may be proved by the tributes of admiration and affection which, after his death in 1908, were paid to him in Bolivia both officially and by private bodies. A square in the capital of Bolivia bears his name; so does the University of Santa Cruz. His remains were repatriated to his native city with all the honors due a prominent citizen, and the State acquired his valuable library, at present the most important section of the national library at Sucre. The Bolivian Congress, lastly, recently voted that civic tributes should be paid him on February 6, 1934, in celebration of the first centenary of his birth.

But although his name was cleared during his lifetime, he never forgot nor forgave the insult to his probity and his loyalty as a patriot. The wound continued to bleed until his final breath and in his last years he had the pain of seeing the calumny, which seemed to have been forgotten, reproduced in a Santa Cruz newspaper. He did not wish to ignore the offense, perhaps in view of its source, and in his last book, *Nuevas Notas Históricas y Bibliográficas*, published in 1907, he devoted a chapter to refuting the cowardly abuse and to chastising the anonymous aggressor. It never has been satisfactorily proven just who was the author of that attack, particularly inexplicable

for its unexpectedness and malevolence. It is sad to confess that Gabriel René-Moreno, like so many others, was not a prophet in his own country; but, since he had left it in the early years of his life, he could have had no enemy there. Was it a rival? Who knows? Envy is a plant which grows exuberantly in cramped quarters, in a provincial atmosphere. Moreover, application of the reasoning of the master himself might lead to the belief that the old aristocracy of Santa Cruz had deteriorated in recent years, ever since the democratic wave had penetrated everywhere, beginning, naturally, with the press. Newspaper impertinence and anonymity are, after all, only offshoots of perfect plebeianism.

The ashes of René-Moreno, nevertheless, repose in his native city, as requested in his will. They were entrusted to the veneration and affection of the nation, since he left no near relatives nor direct descendants. He died a bachelor, after a solitary life, his only passion old documents. Had he been born a hundred years earlier he would have been a Benedictine monk, enamored of parchment, codices, and incunabula.

IV

These notes do not pretend to be a critical study; they are only a modest tribute, meant to give some account, as far as our limited ability allows, of the personality and work of the illustrious writer. For this purpose it is fitting to make a brief study of his literary production and his work as an investigator.

From his earliest youth Moreno showed his extraordinary artistic flair for a style and literary criticism. His first works, *Biografía de Néstor Galindo* and *Biografía de Daniel Calvo* (1868 and 1870), opened the doors of the literary shrines of the day to him and made him distinguished as having a critical mind and a profound knowledge of the language. On his return to Chile after the War of the Pacific, he was called to fill the chair of literature of the Instituto Nacional, where he succeeded no less a person than his teacher, the eminent Don Miguel Luis Amunátegui. There he wrote, for the sole purpose of providing a textbook for his students, the *Elementos de Literatura Preceptiva* which for precept, scope, and method, as well as for elegance of style, has become one of the classic American works on the subject and placed its author on a par with Don Rufino José Cuervo and Don Miguel Antonio Caro. A fundamental book, it deserves to be known by all those in the New World who are interested in preserving, purifying, and invigorating the Castilian language.

After the publication of the essay entitled *El General Ballivián* (1894), a historical criticism of a book by the Bolivian José María Santiváñez, Moreno dedicated himself almost exclusively to bibliography and history, his writings of that sort always being characterized by impeccable form and by sharp Rabelaisian irony.

The fact that his work was never inspired by any ulterior motive or by the least desire for gain completes his qualifications for consideration as a genuine writer, one who was born, not made. His historical and literary tastes cost him money instead of earning it for him. He wrote to satisfy his inner impulses, out of patriotism and love of letters, as he avers in the prologue of his *Últimos días coloniales en el Alto Perú* (1896), when he says, "The urge felt by the author has had from the beginning a strange and unusual character. The task meant long studies in three or four widely separated cities, studies of debatable value and in any event arduous and difficult, without the slightest stimulus of approbation or recompense. Although he may boast, as is the custom, of having done it in his spare time, in the successful hope that it will be well received; although he may deny that it was a hard task, done only because he wanted to, here would be these solid tomes to nobody's taste; here they would stand denouncing the author, not only for feebleness and literary inadequacy, but also for faulty judgment, especially in his choice of subject. In my opinion, the interest of mankind is not aroused—because no inherent moral historical meaning is conveyed—by the adventure of a nation which incited a great revolution, when it is the countries surrounding and oppressing it rather than the nation itself which have acquired great advantages from the success of the revolution, while that nation, at least until the present, for one reason or another has reaped therefrom not advantage, but ruin." He was referring to the revolution of 1809 in Chuquisaca, the capital of Alto Perú (today Bolivia), the revolution in which was uttered the first cry of independence in South America. Moreno unearthed this almost forgotten historical event from tradition and from archives and described it in all its great importance in the pages of the work which is indisputably his best as far as content and spirit are concerned.

The author, in speaking of this work, expressed his noble lack of self-seeking, if not his disillusionment, when he also said in the prologue mentioned above: "This book is now the fifth volume on Bolivia, by a solitary author of works without readers in Bolivia itself and unknown even in the very city in which they are published. None of them a figment of the imagination, all in homage to history, they and two others of the same kind on Peru have, each in its turn, served the library of the Instituto Nacional de Chile as exchanges for foreign publications. But the most notable fact is the contumacy of this gleaner for history." Sublime contumacy, let us add, which saved historic materials from destruction and events of the most interesting periods of colonial and republican history of Bolivia from oblivion to leave them stamped on pages written in inimitable style.

Matanzas de Yáñez and *Mojos y Chiquitos* (1886 and 1888) are two more works of indisputable historic value. The first consists of the

account, presented in the light of the annals of the Bolivian press, of troublesome events brought about by the hazards of political life during the period when military demagogues ruled unchecked. The second is an itemized catalog of the archives of the Jesuit missions established in the Alto-Peruvian Provinces of Mojos and Chiquitos, a source rich in all kinds of references for reconstructing the colonial past and contributing to geographic and ethnographic studies of the region.

Moreno's achievement as a historian is characterized by conscientious research and by absolute impartiality of opinion which, though at times severe and uncompromising, was always based on truth and justice. History as he wrote it is the psychological and social history of a long period of Bolivian life, taken not only from archives and libraries, but also from the personal testimony of survivors of certain epochs, personal witnesses of important events from whom he obtained in his youth oral accounts full of interest. The historian had lived under the constant determination to perpetuate the things of the past which he found worthy to serve as examples and as lessons. He was grieved by the lack of interest, bordering on indifference, of "these youthful American collectivities established as sovereign states, absorbed in the present, lighthearted over the future, their backs very much turned to the past, although each one of them carries pulsing in his veins the old blood, the blood of fathers and forefathers who enjoyed sharing energetically in the civil and public life of their time."

He carried his honesty and his training as an investigator to such an extreme that he did not feel justified in mentioning in his writings any undocumented fact or in citing any published item which had not passed through his hands. "The bibliographic catalogs of Bolivia which I have published," he said in the prologue of one of his works of that category, "this which I am publishing herewith, and one which is yet to be published, are positive and real lists on account of both method and material; positive, because each item was in my hand and before my eyes as it was inscribed and described; real, because the cataloguer knows whereof he speaks in regard to each item, all of which he actually owns. All are well bound and arranged numerically on my shelves, each ready to reply 'here am I' and come to hand for any one calling it according to the catalogue."

With the generic titles of *Bolivia y Perú* and *Bolivia y Argentina* (1901 to 1905) and under the modest subtitles of *Notas*, *Más Notas*, and *Nuevas Notas*, Moreno published a series of volumes containing many different studies, historical, biographical, political, or simply literary in character, all full of interest and all of irreproachable composition. In one of these volumes (*Bolivia y Perú—Notas históricas*

y bibliograficas), while tracing the life of Nicomedes Antelo—a compatriot who played no outstanding part, but who, to Moreno's mind, was a sort of compendium of the picturesque characteristics of his native city—he devoted pages full of feeling and color to describing types and customs of the Santa Cruz of his boyhood years. Here is a sample from those pages: "Before I ran across him late in life on the highways of the world, Antelo had been for thirty years a part of the dearest and most pleasant of my childhood recollections. I can truly say that his image reigned in my memory with all the fascination of illusion. I would see him swiftly disappear as he waltzed in the lively throng of ladies and gentlemen in the drawing rooms of my maternal grandmother in Santa Cruz. There were two drawing rooms, one for the more important, the other for the youngsters. He stood, like a Colossus of Rhodes, with one foot in the first and the other in the second. He was an incomparable master of the clavichord, the violin, the *quena*, the guitar, of singing, dancing, joking, and youthful elegance. In one word, for me he was at that time the most extraordinary man on earth. What would I not have given to perform a single one of his prodigious feats! How my admiration for him made me dream how glorious it would be to equal him some day!"

The bibliographical work of the master is contained in various volumes published under the title of catalogues or libraries. The notes at the end of those pieces meriting the distinction are often in themselves veritable chapters of history, polemics, or criticism.

Moreno also excelled in description, and no one has drawn better pictures of the natural beauties of Bolivia or delineated with greater skill the features of its countryside and the panorama of its cities. This is not the place to quote from them, or this sketch would be disproportionately long. A new edition of his books, which is now being considered at the instance of the Bolivian Congress, will permit the dissemination of his valuable but unknown works and be the best tribute possible to the memory of the author.

V

To the very sincere and cordial gratitude which it is pleasant to express in the name of Bolivia to those who organized this meeting and to the institutions which have taken part in it, we should like to add our acknowledgment to the diplomatic representatives of the Hispano-American nations, to His Excellency the Ambassador of Spain, and to the distinguished audience which has contributed by its presence to the solemnity of the occasion.

As for the Instituto de las Españas, if it is logical that the mother country should consider as a reflection of her own excellence whatever in America tends to exalt her language and her race, this celebration is as much hers as ours. The Inter-American Bibliographic Association, for its part, joins in honoring the figure of an eminent bibliographer, of a courageous worker in the thankless but productive task of collecting and organizing the written product of the human brain, the never failing fount of culture and of progress.

Yet this tribute assumes a still greater significance because it is being held under the auspices of the Pan American Union, when we realize that Gabriel René-Moreno was one of the active opponents of Pan Americanism in the south of the continent. His opposition was not mere prejudice, nor was it influenced by the prevailing ideas of his epoch; neither did it arise from any romantic impetuosity to defend the rights of Hispano-America as opposed to the subjugating might of the great Republic of the north. It was simply a noble reaction aroused by deeds and by a policy which it is to be hoped has gone never to return and which the master described as "open warfare with the historical and constitutional antecedents no less than with the innate traditions of a great liberal and cosmopolitan democracy." The author of the essay on American Union, included in one of the volumes of *Notas* published in 1901, would never have dreamed that in the course of time "the Pan Americanism of Washington" as he contemptuously called it, that Pan Americanism which inspired him to so much criticism, was to be the one which today, true to its program of broad intellectual cooperation and under the generous and comprehensive policy of the "good neighbor", paid him a solemn tribute in the Seventh International Conference of American States in Montevideo, and opened the doors of its building in Washington to consecrate him as one of the illustrious sons of America. These are contrasts of fate which contribute, by their noble repercussion and even more by their lack of frequency, to strengthen our faith in human solidarity and in the dictates of historical justice, making the climb toward the ideal of our long-sought perfection less rugged and less tortuous.



DOCTOR MANUEL MÁRQUEZ STERLING AMBASSADOR OF CUBA IN THE UNITED STATES

ON January 31, 1934, His Excellency Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, newly appointed Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Cuba in Washington, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt. In his remarks on that occasion Dr. Márquez Sterling said:

The mission that I come to fulfill in Your Excellency's country is extremely gratifying and a high honor for me, as it is based on the firm determination to maintain, with all the prestige of its historic origin, the close bond of friendship which causes the relations between Cuba and the United States to prosper.

This is precisely the time at which my country, profiting by the experiences of a third of a century, is entering upon the most important stage of her independent existence. Bearing in mind the successes and failures of the past, which was marked by fair weather and storms in tragic succession, she has an intense desire to improve the standards of her existence as a republic, in harmony with the progress of ideas, and is directing her attention to the renewal and the perfection of those standards with respect to the international phase of her purest aspirations.

Only mutual confidence, in a political sense, and equitable coordination in regard to commerce, must form the bases—in the judgment of the Cuban people—of the relations between our friendly Republics; and by a fortunate opportunity I have the satisfaction of maintaining, as the program of my Government, these essential postulates of the highest law and the strictest ethics.

To these sentiments President Roosevelt replied:

I warmly reciprocate your firm determination to maintain the close ties of friendship between the United States and Cuba. I can assure you that in so far as it is within my power, I too shall bend my efforts to the end that your country and mine may through mutual respect and cooperative effort improve their friendly relations and social well-being.

I heartily concur in your views that mutual confidence in a political sense and fair and just coordination in regard to commerce must form the bases of the relations between the two Republics. In testimony thereof may I take this opportunity of reiterating the readiness of my Government to commence negotiations for a modification of the permanent treaty between the United States and Cuba and for a revision of the commercial convention between the two countries.

The new ambassador is the son of the eminent statesman and diplomat Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, who participated in the War of Independence of 1868 and later went to South America to seek recognition of and protection for the Cuban patriots. After the independence of his country had been recognized by Peru, he became its Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary in Lima, where on August 28, 1872, his son Manuel was born.



HIS EXCELLENCY DR. MANUEL MÁRQUEZ STERLING,
AMBASSADOR EXTRAORDINARY AND PLENIPOTENTIARY OF CUBA
IN THE UNITED STATES

Before Doctor Márquez Sterling had finished his law course at the University of Habana, his studies were interrupted by the war of 1895; after it was over and the independence of Cuba assured, he began the career which for over 30 years has made him a leading figure in public life. His first appointment was that of secretary to the Cuban patriot Gonzalo de Quesada when he came to Washington to negotiate for the establishment of the Republic. Shortly thereafter, in 1900, he represented Cuba as its commissioner at the Paris Exposition.

On his return to his own country, Dr. Márquez Sterling devoted himself to journalism for seven years; in 1907 he again entered public life with an appointment to Buenos Aires, where he was first Consul General and later Chargé d'Affaires before the Government of Argentina. In 1909 he was appointed Resident Minister in Rio de Janeiro; three years later he was transferred to Lima in the capacity of Minister Plenipotentiary. After a brief stay in the Peruvian capital and another in Mexico, where he was also Minister, he resigned in July 1913 and returned to Cuba.

There he founded the newspaper *Heraldo de Cuba*, which was so successful that later he founded *La Nación*, the organ of the Liberal Party. From October 1, 1924, to June 17, 1925, he was director of the Pan American Bureau of the Department of Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Cuba. On December 8, 1929, he returned to Mexico as Ambassador.

Doctor Márquez Sterling has represented the Republic of Cuba on many other occasions; he was delegate plenipotentiary to the Fifth International Conference of American States at Santiago de Chile in 1923; special ambassador to secure the representation of the Governments of Guatemala, Uruguay, Argentina, Paraguay, Bolivia, and Peru at the Sixth International Conference of American States at Habana in 1928; and delegate plenipotentiary to that conference and to the Commission of Investigation and Conciliation acting in the boundary dispute between the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay. He is also the joint commissioner of the Commission of Conciliation between the United States and Albania, set up in accordance with the treaty of October 22, 1928.

Doctor Márquez Sterling is also well known as a literary figure. Among his writings the following books are especially noteworthy: *Ideas y Sensaciones*, *Hombres de Pro*, *Alrededor de Nuestra Psicología*, *Psicología Profana*, *Burla Burlando*, *La Diplomacia en Nuestra Historia*, and *Los Últimos Días del Presidente Madero*. He is a corresponding member of the Spanish Academy, and an active member of the Cuban Academies of Art and Letters and of History, of the Mexican Academy of Statistics and History, and of the Academy of Numismatics and History of Buenos Aires.

The Ambassador is also the representative of his country on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



Photograph by Hessler-Henderson.

HIS EXCELLENCY M. ALBERT BLANCHET,
ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF HAITI
IN THE UNITED STATES.

M. ALBERT BLANCHET MINISTER OF HAITI IN WASHINGTON

ON December 9, 1933, M. Albert Blanchet, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Haiti to the United States, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt at the White House.

M. Blanchet is well known in Washington, for this is not the first time he has represented his Government in the United States. In 1917 he came to this country as Secretary of Legation and the next year was Chargé d'Affaires for several months. In 1921 he was appointed Minister, in which capacity he remained for nearly two years.

That is why, in presenting his letters of credence, M. Blanchet could say:

In seeing again this magnificent Federal capital, more attractive than ever, I recall, not without emotion, that I have had not only the privilege of making the debut of my career here and passing a long time here in the service of my country . . . but also the good fortune to form relations here which I prize today so much the more because they are of long date. It was at the time of the great war, of its innumerable activities mingled with unprecedented anxieties and perplexities, succeeded, from the time of conclusion of hostilities, by overpowering realizations and unlimited hopes. Of all the memories that have clung to me up to the entrance upon my second mission, the most vivid are those attaching to my persevering efforts to broaden our mutual understanding at that time, and, by that means, to give to our relations the firm basis needed by good neighbors, as that enables them to clear up inevitable misunderstandings and to avoid irreparable errors: I mean mutual confidence. . . .

In his reply, President Roosevelt said:

It is indeed gratifying to welcome you among us again to take up the high position in which you so ably represented your Government on a previous occasion. I am sure it is equally gratifying to you to renew your former acquaintances and friendships here. . . .

I wish to assure you, Mr. Minister, that you may count upon my hearty cooperation and that of the officials of this Government in furthering the cordial relations and spirit of cooperation which have prompted the efforts of our respective Governments in the past.

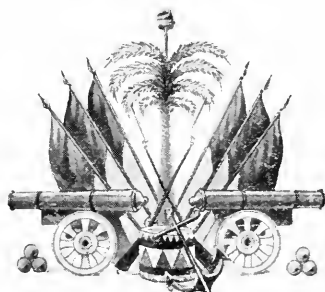
The new diplomatic representative of Haiti was born in the city of Jérémie on December 26, 1884. He is the great grandson of Gen. Jacques Antoine Blanchet, one of the founders of the nation, who was president of the Constituent Assembly and senator of the Republic in 1806.

M. Blanchet was educated at the Institution St.-Louis de Gonzague and at the National Law School, both at Port-au-Prince, and was admitted to the bar in 1905. He has been inspector of schools of

Jérémie, director of the École Libre de Droit there, and professor of civil, criminal, and commercial law, of the history of law, and of international public law. Twice he has been president of the Bar Association of Jérémie. In Port-au-Prince he has been commissioner of the Government for the Civil Court and the Court of Cassation.

Before his appointment to Washington, M. Blanchet was Secretary of Foreign Affairs and Worship, in which capacity he signed the agreement of August 7, 1933, between Haiti and the United States, concerning the Haitianization of the National Guard, withdrawal of military forces from Haiti, and financial arrangements.

Immediately upon his arrival to take up the duties of Minister of Haiti, M. Blanchet also became a member of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



ECUADOREAN-PERUVIAN BOUNDARY NEGOTIATIONS

ON February 6, 1934, President Franklin D. Roosevelt made the following announcement:

"The Ambassador of Peru and the Minister of Ecuador have called upon me by instruction of their respective Governments to request, in accordance with the terms of the Ponce-Castro Protocol concluded between Peru and Ecuador on June 30, 1924, that this Government give its consent to the sending of delegates from Ecuador and Peru to Washington to discuss the adjustment of their common frontier. The protocol provides that should the delegations be unable through direct negotiations to fix a definitive line, they will determine by common consent those zones the sovereignty over which is reciprocally recognized, as well as a zone to be submitted to the arbitral decision of the President of the United States.

"It has been a source of intimate satisfaction to me to consent to the request made by the Governments of these great Republics who have thus given most convincing and encouraging evidence of their determination to settle their long-standing boundary controversy through friendly discussion and in accordance with the most enlightened principles of international practice. Their decision should be a matter of encouragement to the governments and the peoples of the entire continent.

"In this connection it is heartening to recall that the Governments of Colombia and Peru are likewise undertaking to settle the controversy involving their common frontier through friendly negotiations being held at Rio de Janeiro.

"The outstanding achievement of the Montevideo Conference was its unanimous work in strengthening the inter-American machinery for the peaceful adjustment of controversies which might arise among the American States. No nations of the world have more effective means at their disposal for the peaceful solution of disputes than the republics of this hemisphere. It would be a cause of the greatest rejoicing to friends of peace throughout the world if the armed contest resulting from a disagreement over frontiers in the Chaco, which is still continuing, would likewise yield to peaceful methods of adjustment. A continued resort to war, in view of the manifold agencies of peace which are available, would be a blot upon the civilization of this continent.

"I am greatly encouraged that the Governments of Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru give this convincing demonstration that they share our belief that such boundary disputes are eminently susceptible of pacific and friendly settlement."

TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH LATIN AMERICA IN 1933

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

THE total trade of the United States with the 20 Latin American Republics for the year ended December 31, 1933, as shown in the tables below, compiled from statements furnished by the Statistical Office of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce, amounted to \$531,984,000, exceeding slightly that of 1932 when the figure was \$517,674,000.

In 1933 imports into the United States from Latin America, amounting to \$316,040,000, decreased 2.2 percent in value from a year earlier, while exports to that region, totaling \$215,944,000, expanded 11 percent.

Imports from the northern group of countries showed a decline of 6.5 percent, while those from South America were approximately the same in 1933 as in 1932.

Referring to imports by geographic areas, the Department of Commerce, in a recently issued survey of the foreign trade of the United States in 1933, states:

Imports from Argentina, Uruguay, and Peru, * * * increased 114 percent, 79 percent, and 48 percent, respectively. Incoming shipments from other leading Latin American countries, namely, Venezuela, Colombia, Chile, and Mexico, declined 34 percent, 22 percent, 6 percent, and 18 percent, respectively. These declines were largely the result of the lower price of coffee and the falling off in imports of copper and petroleum, following the imposition of the United States excise tax on these products in 1932. Because of the increase in prices of sugar, total imports from Cuba were slightly larger in value than in 1932, notwithstanding the reduction of 15 percent in the quantity of sugar imported from Cuba.

Exports to the northern group of Republics increased 3.7 percent, and those to South America 18.6 percent.

In the northern group, United States exports to Mexico, Central America, and the Dominican Republic increased 17.6 percent, 4.1 percent, and 19.2 percent, respectively.

Exports to all the South American Republics, except Ecuador, registered gains, ranging from 3.9 percent for Brazil to 49.1 percent for Chile.

Included in the leading articles exported in larger quantities to Latin America in 1933, according to the Department of Commerce survey quoted above, were automobiles, airplanes, machinery equipment, and heavy iron and steel.

TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES WITH LATIN AMERICA, 12 MONTHS ENDED
DECEMBER 31*United States imports from Latin America*

[Values in thousands of dollars; i.e., 000 omitted]

Country of origin	1932	1933	Percent change in 1933
Mexico.....	37,423	30,716	-17.9
Guatemala.....	4,501	3,484	-22.5
El Salvador.....	1,143	2,108	+84.4
Honduras.....	9,004	7,046	-21.7
Nicaragua.....	1,964	2,225	+13.2
Costa Rica.....	3,687	3,944	+6.9
Panama.....	3,530	3,376	-4.3
Cuba.....	58,330	58,498	+0.2
Dominican Republic.....	3,380	3,279	-2.9
Haiti.....	611	804	+31.5
North American Republics.....	123,573	115,480	-6.5
Argentina.....	15,779	33,841	+114.5
Bolivia ¹	6	105	+1,650.0
Brazil.....	82,139	82,628	+0.5
Chile.....	12,278	11,503	-6.3
Colombia.....	60,846	47,637	-21.7
Ecuador.....	2,386	1,888	-20.8
Paraguay ¹	100	262	+162.0
Peru.....	3,685	5,472	+48.4
Uruguay.....	2,104	3,773	+79.3
Venezuela.....	20,294	13,451	-33.7
South American Republics.....	199,617	200,560	+0.4
Total Latin America.....	323,190	316,040	-2.2

United States exports to Latin America

[Values in thousands of dollars; i.e., 000 omitted]

Country of destination	1932	1933	Percent change in 1933
Mexico.....	31,900	37,526	+17.6
Guatemala.....	2,820	3,097	+9.8
El Salvador.....	2,289	2,320	+1.3
Honduras.....	4,473	5,030	+12.4
Nicaragua.....	1,993	2,096	+5.1
Costa Rica.....	2,435	2,424	-0.4
Panama.....	15,609	15,887	+1.7
Cuba.....	28,754	25,093	-12.7
Dominican Republic.....	4,630	5,519	+19.2
Haiti.....	4,005	3,595	-10.2
North American Republics.....	98,908	102,587	+3.7
Argentina.....	31,133	36,929	+18.6
Bolivia ¹	2,163	2,629	+21.5
Brazil.....	28,600	29,725	+3.9
Chile.....	3,568	5,321	+49.1
Colombia.....	10,670	14,754	+38.2
Ecuador.....	1,754	1,573	-10.3
Paraguay ¹	281	712	+153.3
Peru.....	3,961	4,985	+25.8
Uruguay.....	3,217	3,611	+12.3
Venezuela.....	10,229	13,115	+28.2
South American Republics.....	95,576	113,357	+18.6
Total Latin America.....	194,481	215,944	+11.0

¹ United States statistics credit commodities in considerable quantities imported from and exported to Bolivia and Paraguay via ports situated in neighboring countries, not to the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay, but to the countries in which the ports of entry or departure are located.

SOME LESSER-KNOWN COMMODITIES OF COMMERCE¹

By WILLIAM A. REID

Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union

CHICLE

DID you ever hear of the town of Flores on an island of the same name in the Lake of Petén? Perhaps these names are unfamiliar to you. But town and island and lake form the heart of a region that sends forth a commodity of commerce that puts millions of mouths to work. It is chicle, the basis of that popular article, chewing gum.

Look at the map of Central America. The department of Petén is the largest political division in northern Guatemala and one of the most thinly populated. On the west lies the Republic of Mexico; on the east, British Honduras. All three produce chicle from trees growing wild in the forests.

Over this vast area of forest and plain trek hundreds of human beings as picturesque in garb as the gypsy. The *chiclero* is the unmounted toiler of the solitudes; he is a hunter—a searcher for trees; and in season he finds the tree that gives forth the peculiar sap which forms the basis of chewing gum. When we remember that the United States alone in a recent year purchased about nine million pounds of chicle and that most of it originated in the region mentioned, we gather a faint idea of the importance of the *chiclero* and the place his product occupies in the marts of commerce.

A peculiarity of the *chiclero's* calling is that, unlike the usual husbandman, he does not "make hay while the sun shines." He is a rainy season worker; the extraction of chicle sap can be performed only when the tree yields it freely, which is during the season of humidity and rains. But the wet period in the tropics—our summer time—does not signify constant precipitation. It means showery months and at times a heavy downpour lasting for hours. Then perhaps the sun bursts forth and the heat and humidity are intense. These are the climatic conditions that confront the *chiclero*, but he sallies forth undaunted from his village and lives for weeks and months in the forests. He follows rivers and trails because there are few roads and at certain places he establishes an *hato*, or central point to which he and his associates may bring the sap which they collect.

¹ See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, October 1933, for the first article in this series. It discussed oil of petit-grain, casein, carnauba wax, divi-divi, quebracho, guayule, yerba mate, and shark-liver oil.



A "CHICLERO" AT WORK

During the rainy season hundreds of these "chicleros" search a vast forested area in Mexico, Guatemala, and British Honduras for the chicle tree, the sap of which is the basis of chewing gum.

In attacking the tree—the *Achras chicle* Pittier—a *chiclero* makes an incision or groove with his machete in the bark, down which the semi-liquid substance flows into a cup attached to the tree trunk. Some men, like telephone linemen, climb the trees by means of a waist rope and spurs attached to the feet; and in this way, by tapping a number of points, more quickly “bleed” the tree, which is often killed by the process.

At the *hato* the sap, to which water has been added, is boiled; at the proper consistency it is poured into wooden molds, and when cooled the mold is inverted and a block of chicle—a *marqueta*—is ready to be wrapped in canvas for transportation to the outside world.

Mules provide the usual means of shipping chicle to points on Lake Petén and to streams and rivers. Often for many days a caravan of mules in single file is moving through the forest outward bound. *Chicleros*, of course, are urging the animals onward; night may overtake man and beast and bivouac be made; again, a village or a lonely hut may provide shelter for the men of the little expedition. Lake and river boats also transport chicle blocks on certain stages of the journey to market. Quantities of this commodity are moved down such rivers as the Pasión, the Belize, the Mopán, and other watercourses, the direction depending on the particular market to which the product is destined.

Belize in British Honduras is a great chicle market. Watercourses leading to the interior and into Guatemala prove popular routes on which chicle-burdened boats reach this port. Many eastward-flowing streams farther south or farther north also are arteries on which chicle schooners bear cargoes to the coast and to Belize. Even some of the chicle cargo moving out of the Lake Izabal region via Livingston is sent up-coast to Belize in order to have the advantage of a larger market.

At Belize most of the houses stand several feet above ground on account of the lowness of the city's location. And one of the outstanding structures is the huge warehouse and office belonging to one of the world's greatest chewing-gum manufacturers.

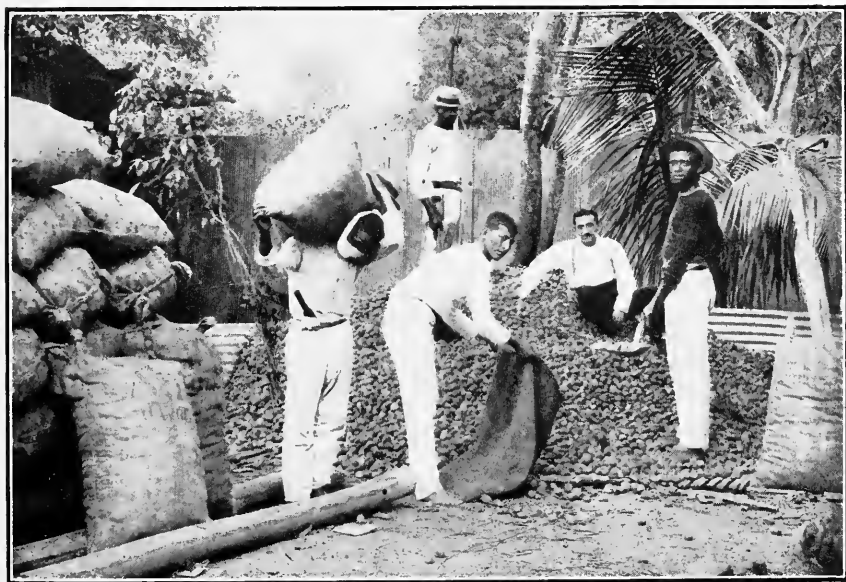
About this building one may meet and mingle with contractors and *chicleros* from diverse parts of the hinterland. The former engage with this big corporation to provide a given amount of chicle; other contractors make similar agreements with merchants in Belize. The contractors in turn hire the *chicleros* locally and in the interior; they are paid about \$10 for each quintal (100 lbs.) of chicle they bring into an *hato*.

Needless to say, the life of the *chicleros* is hard and during the season they are lost in forest and jungle for weeks or months. Usually they roam the region in squads; here and there the habitant of

a lonely adobe hut offers for sale some of the necessities of life. Amusements, save a cock fight now and then, are almost unknown; but onward the *chiclero* plods his weary way in the fastnesses of the little-known. He is making a living and also making it possible for millions of people to chew that curious but ever more popular commodity of commerce. It is chewing gum in civilization but chicle in the wilds.

TAGUA, OR VEGETABLE IVORY

"The tagua is a tree that has gone astray—has separated from its fellows of the palm family," said a well-known exporter in the port of



SACKING TAGUA NUTS IN ECUADOR.

One of the principal exports of Ecuador is the tagua nut. Many millions of pounds are shipped to the United States, chiefly for manufacture into buttons.

Guayaquil to the writer. Boats and rafts from up-country were unloading their cargoes of tagua nuts. Tons were already in port awaiting shipment to the United States and elsewhere.

Before inquiring into the uses of this commodity, let us take a launch and proceed up the Daule River, which unites with the Guayas at Guayaquil. We shall be gone from early morning until nightfall and shall learn much about a product that enters into the manufacture of millions of buttons for the people of Europe and America.

Arriving in the region of the tagua palm, one notes that it makes a peculiar growth by first following the ground as a kind of running root. When 15 or 20 feet in length the plant turns upward for 5 or 6

feet. From this trunk many enormous feather-like leaves shoot to a height several times that of a man. On the heavier section of this queer palm big burrs form, the number depending on the age of the tree, but from 15 to 25 on the average. Within the burr are a dozen or more small nuts somewhat larger than an English walnut. In early stages they are soft and watery. Before they become extremely hard wild hogs of the jungle, it is said, eat them quite freely. Once fully matured the nuts have another shell, which is easily broken with a hammer; the kernel, which is the tagua of commerce, is covered with a brown skin and resembles the meat of a large Brazil nut.

The men who search the lowland forests for these nuts are known as *tagüeros*, and their calling is one of arduous toil and low wages. They themselves carry much of their food and equipment for weeks in the wilds. After they find the trees and remove the outer husks of the nuts, the latter must be carried on human backs or on mules to the nearest river landing. There they are assembled in quantity and eventually loaded on boats for the down-river trip.

The use of tagua in the marts of trade did not become important until a few generations ago. But some enterprising man shipped sample supplies to European centers where there were factories utilizing elephant tusks. Gradually, experiments indicated that many articles made from elephant ivory could also be produced from vegetable ivory. Thus Europeans discovered a field for the utilization of a product that had long gone to waste in Ecuador, Colombia, and other parts of northwestern South America.

Some of the centers of industry in the United States where tagua is consumed in quantities annually are Rochester, Brooklyn, Newark, and Springfield. And some of the many articles produced from this form of ivory are dice, umbrella handles, artificial flowers, checkers, and other novelties; but the use to which many tons of this ivory is placed annually is that of button manufacturing. And these buttons for coats, cloaks, and dresses are not only sold in the United States but are sent to many foreign nations.

COCA

The coca plant has been called the wonder plant of the Andes. Through the centuries it seems to have been a blessing as well as a curse to mankind. When we sit in the dental chair with an aching tooth the dentist may inject cocaine into the gum and at once the pain is eased; then we thank providence that Bolivia and Peru are still growing the famed coca plant and sending its leaves to our medicine factories for the extraction of cocaine.

Down in the mountains of Bolivia and Peru, particularly on eastern Andine slopes, there are many humble natives who make their living by growing the coca plant. The place where coca is grown is known

as a *cocal*. Such plantings are usually small and are found at an altitude ranging from the low forest jungle up to 6,000 or more feet above sea level. A humble native may own a few acres of land and on perhaps half of this area he grows his crop of coca. The whole family engages in the planting and hoeing and at the end of the season in picking the leaves. The coca bush may stand 4, 5, or 10 feet in height, branches are straight, leaves green, the blossoms form in clusters and are followed by red berries. Leaves are harvested about three times a year, in March, June, and November. An average yield is about 4 ounces a plant; and the plants in a well kept *cocal*



Photograph by W. V. Alford.

THE COCA INDUSTRY.

Many workers are employed in eastern Peru and Bolivia in gathering coca leaves, from which cocaine is derived. The man in the center holds two cakes of cocaine, in which form the drug is occasionally exported.

will bear leaves for many years. After the leaves are plucked they are dried, packed in home-made containers, and carried by hand or on mule or llama back to the nearest purchasing agent.

Bolivia and Peru ship their coca leaves largely to Europe, but some come directly to the United States.

THE BABASSÚ NUT

The *babassú attalea speciosa* is one of the great palms of Brazil. It is a source of wealth of the Brazilian northwest.

The *babassú* palm is one of grace and beauty. It attains a height of from 40 to 70 feet and has exceptionally large leaves; in the distance

the tree presents quite a lace-like appearance. Like some others of its kind it thrives best on slopes and uplands rather than in low river valleys. About 30 to 40 palms per acre are said to be the average in the region where they are exploited. Eventually, they may be found in as promising numbers in other parts of the country. And as to the life of this tree, investigators and engineers declared only a few years ago that some of those producing in Maranhão are more than two hundred years old and are yielding as heavily as younger trees. The *babassú* is hardy and prolific and begins to bear fruit at about ten years of age. Nine or ten months are required from



BABASSÚ NUTS.

Their field of usefulness in industry is constantly widening.

flowering time to maturity of the nuts. In the latter state they fall to the ground from July to November and, of course, are easily gathered. They are about the size of a lemon. But the transportation of them by primitive means to river landings is slow and arduous.

Each of the numerous bunches from a single palm may contain 400 or more oval nuts.

The *babassú* nut as it falls from the tree has a fibrous husk beneath which is a mealy substance. Underneath the latter is the hard shell, half an inch thick. In experiments these shells have stood 10,000 pounds pressure without a sign of cracking; thus these nuts are among

the world's hardest varieties to crack. They are so hard that inventors have experimented with all kinds of machines or crushers in order to make the nuts valuable to man. But few of the crushers will do the actual work of cracking the shell without injuring the kernel. Recently, however, success has come to those who have experimented, and a machine that meets the demand of the comparatively new *babassú* industry is said to have been perfected.

Let us look at the vast region where the *babassú* palm grows wild in abundance. The State of Maranhão in the northwest is so far the greatest producer of the nuts. Next comes the adjoining State of Piauí, from which are gathered about a third as many nuts as in the first-mentioned State. Smaller quantities are found in the States of Pará, Amazonas, Mato Grosso, Ceará, Goyaz, and other regions of the north.

What use is the *babassú* nut? If it is so difficult to open, why not utilize other species of oil-bearing nuts?

The *babassú* fills a growing need; 68 percent of the nut is a rich oil of an amber color. Brazil, so far, has not fully developed her coal resources; and during the World War there was a shortage of fuel in local industries. Nuts in the husk proved a valuable substitute for coal, and according to Consul Nickerson, formerly at Pará, 1,700 kilograms of nuts answer the heating purposes of 1,000 kilograms of coal. Another and greater use is the making of margarine for various purposes. The oil is also a substitute for coconut oil; highly refined, *babassú* oil is being used more and more in the medical and pharmaceutical professions. In Diesel and semi-Diesel engines, according to recent experiments, this oil has a broadening field of usefulness. By-products of *babassú* are numerous. The hard shell is an excellent fuel; the meal-like substance between husk and shell can be prepared as food for stock; and the residue from the crushed nuts also provides cakes for cattle feed.

European countries have been the largest consumers of the *babassú* nut. Germany leads as a purchaser, followed in order by Denmark, France, Great Britain, Holland, and Portugal. The United States stands about seventh in the purchasing line, having taken only about 110,000 pounds compared with more than 11,000,000 sent to Germany. For export nuts are usually shelled and shipped in sacks. They are easily loaded by ship hoists and can be handled roughly, a fact that seems to delight the laborer and stevedore.

MONAZITE SAND

Whoever has sailed along the Brazilian coast is aware of the great variety of headlands and sandy beaches that add diversity to the topography of that 5,000-mile littoral. At a few intervals along half the distance, or from Maranhão to the region of Rio de Janeiro, a

rather curious minor industry has been developed. It is that of collecting and shipping monazite sand. Brazil, India, and Burke County in the State of North Carolina seem to have a monopoly of this peculiar substance. Scientists tell us that these deposits, particularly those on the seashore, are the results of the action of wind and waves which wear away earth and special rocks and seemingly

concentrate the sand in certain small areas. Decomposition for ages is also said to have played its part in monazite formations. In Brazil, numerous rivers flowing eastward to the Atlantic have certain quantities of monazite along their banks, some of which is borne downstream to the ocean shore.

What is monazite? Briefly, it is a phosphate of the cerium metals, or a mineral occurring in small isolated crystals. The substance when refined is used to some extent by pharmacists but probably its most extensive use is in the manufacture of gas mantles. Other forms of illumination are also said to make use of monazite.

In such places as the Cliffs of Siry, 30 miles north of the southern boundary of the State of Espírito Santo, Brazil, deposits have been worked for years with considerable success; farther north the beds of Mia-



CINCHONA TREES.

While the cinchona is a native of the Andine slopes of South America, more attention has been given in recent years to its cultivation in the Far East. From its bark quinine is obtained.

hype are supposed to be among the richest in the country, and there many natives have become experts in the work of obtaining the product in commercial quantities.

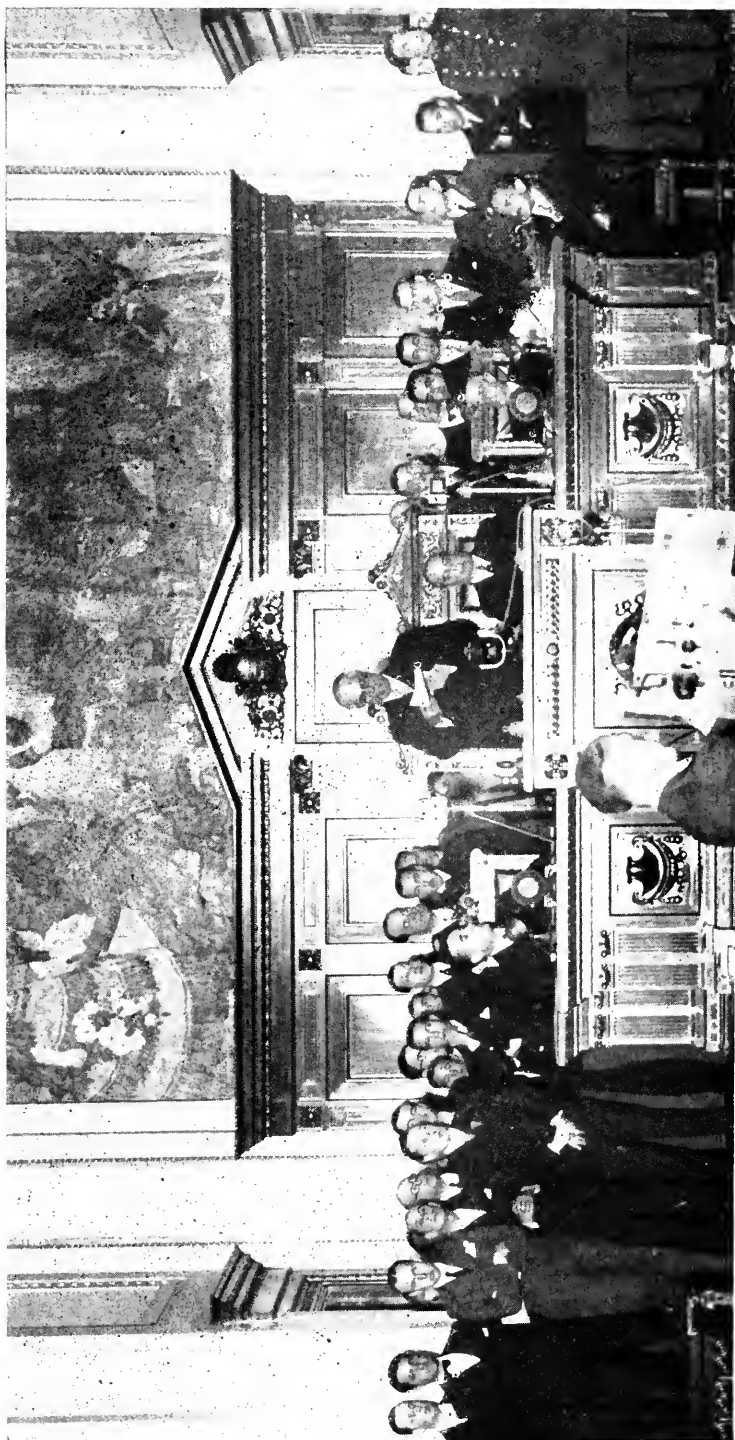
QUININE

"We must have more quinine in the United States and we have come to the Pan American Union to see whether South America's

quinine-producing regions cannot send us larger quantities." These were the words of the head of a well-known company which has long been engaged in the distribution of drugs and chemicals in the United States. The speaker further explained that most of the importations of this excellent drug now come to the United States from the other side of the world and that a few of the large corporations of Europe hold a monopoly on quinine. "Remembering," said the visitor, "that Peru for centuries was the country that furnished the greater part of the world's supply, the trade is wondering if the industry there could not be revived."

The tree from which cinchona bark is obtained is native to the slopes of the Andes from Colombia to Peru. Wonderful tales of the curative properties of the bark of this tree have come to us in the writings of early Spaniards who based their facts on statements given them by descendants of the Incas. The name itself is interesting. It appears that in the Quechua tongue—the language of the Incas—a name was repeated or compounded when it represented a plant that possessed curative properties. Quina-quina was applied to the bark or to the extract from the bark of the cinchona tree. But the latter name is far more modern. It was given to the tree by the botanist Linnaeus who thus sought to honor the wife of Count Chinchón, viceroy of Peru in 1640. The countess, having been cured of an intermittent fever by the use of the bark, helped to spread a knowledge of its properties in Europe. The story of her illness and cure has been delightfully told by Ricardo Palma, in his *Tradiciones Peruanas*. A translation of this tale was published in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for February 1933.

Quinine, the present-day drug, has many uses. As a febrifuge, it is said to be a necessity; expeditions enter tropical jungles fortified by supplies of quinine; in cold climates we often "take cold" and quinine comes to the rescue; new colonies establish themselves in tropical countries and quinine helps them to withstand the attacks of the malaria-bearing mosquito. Many other uses are found for this product of the cinchona tree. Fair prices and active demand seem to be the agents of enterprise; and as demand increases, as it is doing, it seems probable that more attention will be given to the sources of supply in Peru, Ecuador, and Bolivia. At least one new ranch owner in Ecuador is making an effort to start a cinchona grove and is also finding and nurturing the older trees that grow wild on his estate. Other owners of vast forests may follow suit and in turn a thriving Andine industry may be rejuvenated to the good of mankind. As these lines are written, the quinine trust of the Far East seeks information on Peruvian supplies and possibilities for resumption of bark exports from that part of the world.



THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES CONVENES.

The President of Uruguay, Dr. Gabriel Terra, is shown delivering his forceful address at the inaugural session, December 3, 1933.

THE SEVENTH INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN STATES

By WILLIAM MANGER, PH.D.

Counselor, Pan American Union

WITH representatives in attendance from 20 American Republics, and in the presence of diplomatic representatives from other countries, high officials of the Uruguayan nation, and crowded galleries, the Seventh International Conference of American States convened in the Chamber of Deputies of the magnificent legislative palace of the Uruguayan capital on Sunday afternoon, December 3, 1933. At no previous Pan American Conference had so many responsible leaders of government been in attendance. With 10 Ministers of Foreign Affairs participating in the deliberations, two former Presidents, three Ministers of Finance, and a number of ex-Ministers of Foreign Affairs, the conference enjoyed a prestige and the discussions possessed a weight of authority and responsibility greater than in any of its predecessors.

The conference was formally inaugurated by the President of Uruguay, Dr. Gabriel Terra. In an address of remarkable force and frankness, President Terra emphasized the outstanding problems confronting the nations of the continent and the delegates to the conference. Referring to the international controversies which had developed between several Republics, and particularly to the dispute between Bolivia and Paraguay over the Gran Chaco, Dr. Terra expressed himself as follows:

Bolivia and Paraguay have resorted to arms for the solution of a painful conflict. Would that my words, gentlemen of the conference, might have the moving force of an irresistible eloquence to express the fraternal anguish of the people and the Government of Uruguay in the face of this struggle that is exhausting the energies and mortgaging the future of two sister nations, noble in their traditions, worthy of respect for their eagerness for greatness, heroic in upholding and defending their national ideals. We who have trained our spirit in the severe discipline of law desire for America a future of stable organization, based on respect for juridical standards and on the peaceful consecration of our solidarity. We have prided ourselves on being the continent of peace and arbitration, and it behooves the honor of all to regain our position before the world. It is indispensable that the point of solidary and harmonious equilibrium be attained through calm deliberations or through impartial arbitration. The Commission of Neutrals of Washington, the bordering countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Peru), the League of Nations—the highest exponent of directed effort for world solidarity—witnessing the formation of a universal juridical conscience, have tried, in a friendly manner, all formulas and resources for a cordial agreement.

In my opinion, the conference that I have the honor to inaugurate today cannot be deaf to the clamor of American opinion that orders, that urges, that demands peace. I am confident that your appeal will not be made in vain and that your effective exhortation will compel public opinion in both nations.

Equally as forceful were his remarks directed at the problems of an economic character facing the nations of the Western Hemisphere. On this question the President spoke as follows:

I feel confident that the distinguished statesmen and leaders who have laid aside all their own arduous tasks and have come from afar to attend this conference with the wish and the hope of improving the condition of their peoples, which form an integral part of a "discouraged and disillusioned world", according to the well-chosen expression of the Hon. Cordell Hull in his statement at Rio de Janeiro, will not leave Montevideo without taking effective action for the complete pacification of America and for the solution of the great economic problems of the moment, searching for the exact causes of present human distress and a concrete form for their immediate alleviation and complete elimination in the near future.

These causes are truly complex, but we all know the most important of all and should not attempt to conceal it, because it would be cowardice and folly; it is the policy of isolation through customs barriers that we have followed and that has produced disastrous consequences to the commercial relations of America and the world.

In the organization of the conference, the precedent of previous Pan American gatherings was followed and Dr. Alberto Mañé, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Uruguay and chairman of that country's delegation, was elected permanent president of the conference. It was also decided that the work of the conference should be subdivided and for this purpose 10 committees were appointed, one for each of the eight chapters into which the topics of the program were divided, plus a ninth committee on special economic problems, and a tenth, or drafting committee.

The principal features of the conference can perhaps be treated best by considering the major items on the agenda.

ORGANIZATION OF PEACE (CHAPTER I OF THE PROGRAM)

The keynote sounded by President Terra in his inaugural address found a responsive chord among all those participating in the conference. Although not on the agenda, the question of the Chaco and the reestablishment of the peace of the continent was uppermost in the minds of all the delegates, and it was obvious even before the conference convened that this would be a major subject of discussion. At the first meeting, therefore, of the Committee on the Organization of Peace, a subcommittee on the Chaco was appointed, composed of the chairmen of the delegations of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Peru, Mexico, Guatemala, and Uruguay. The purpose of this subcommittee was to study the possibilities and the

manner in which the conference might cooperate with the Committee of the League of Nations that was inquiring into the situation of the Chaco.

What had previously been considered as an obstacle to any possible success of the Montevideo Conference, and had in fact been advanced as a reason for its postponement, proved to be one of its greatest elements of strength. The tragedy of the Chaco and the spectacle of two sister nations engaged in bitter warfare served, as perhaps nothing else could have done, to solidify the feeling of continental unity and bring home the obligation resting upon the nations to endeavor by every possible means to reestablish the peace of the continent. This influence manifested itself not alone in the discussion of this particular problem, but was evident in virtually all the other deliberations of the conference. In other words, the psychological effect of this catastrophe permeated the entire conference, and the feeling of unity which it engendered facilitated the work of a conference as a whole and contributed in no small manner to its success.

The efforts of the subcommittee and the Committee of the League of Nations, with the decisive and enthusiastic intervention of President Terra, resulted in the acceptance by Bolivia and Paraguay of a truce, during which the basic problem might be discussed in a calm and tranquil atmosphere. The announcement of this agreement gave rise to one of the most inspiring and significant sessions of the conference, in fact, of any Pan American conference, a session which afforded ample evidence of the earnest desire of everyone to see this tragic conflict brought to an end.

The sentiment of the conference on the question of the Chaco was voiced by the Secretary of State of the United States, Hon. Cordell Hull, at the closing session on December 26th, when he said:

The useless shedding of blood has no place in the age in which we live. With innumerable agencies for the peaceful settlement of disputes between nations, war is useless as well as odious, repulsive, and a challenge to organized society. The present war is as deplorable as it is dangerous in its consequences to all neighboring countries.

For weeks the spirit of peace has hovered over this conference and today it pervades the minds and hearts of every person. Its powerful and moving effects have played their immense part in the present cessation of hostilities. Every lover of peace about this conference has felt impelled to exert himself to the utmost. Such splendid leaders as President Terra by their wise and persistent efforts have been powerful factors in this result. The League of Nations agencies have steadily and efficiently functioned.

Much, however, remains to be done. Peoples here represented must rise up en masse and demand that the awful scourge of war be forthwith banished from this hemisphere, that fighting permanently cease, and that not another mother be widowed nor another child orphaned.

Unfortunately, permanent peace was not achieved, but this does not detract in the slightest from the significance of the events at Monte-

video or from the efforts of the conference to bring about a settlement. Those events demonstrated the existence of a real spirit of continental unity. The truce may not have resulted in a permanent peace, but the failure of the truce is not the fault of the Pan American Conference.

* * * * *

The foregoing recites the efforts made at Montevideo to reestablish peace. In addition, the conference took constructive action toward strengthening the machinery for the maintenance of peace.

During the 10 years preceding the Seventh Conference a number of treaties and conventions had been negotiated and signed by the Republics of the American Continent, having for their object the establishment of pacific means for the settlement of international controversies. The first of this series of peace instruments was the Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts, signed at the Fifth International Conference of American States at Santiago, Chile, in 1923. The facilities afforded by that treaty were broadened and strengthened at the International Conference of American States on Conciliation and Arbitration which met at Washington in December 1928 and January 1929, pursuant to a resolution of the Sixth Pan American Conference of Habana. As a result of this Washington conference two agreements of far-reaching significance were signed: An Inter-American Arbitration Treaty and an Inter-American Convention on Conciliation.

The Montevideo Conference made a further contribution to the erection of this peace structure by the adoption of an additional protocol to the Conciliation Convention of 1929. As the subcommittee of the conference to which this subject was referred pointed out in its report, the treaty of 1923 and the convention of 1929 have received very favorable comment, but both possess the defect that no provision is made for the appointment of a Commission of Investigation and Conciliation until after a controversy shall have arisen, at which time the appointment of such a commission may become much more difficult. It was with a view to remedying this defect and giving a permanent character to the Commissions of Investigation and Conciliation that the conference adopted the additional protocol. By the terms of this protocol each country shall name, upon ratification of the protocol, those members of the various commissions provided for in article IV of the Treaty of Santiago of 1923, the fifth member of each commission to be appointed through the intermediary of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. These commissions shall have a permanent character and shall be called "Commissions of Investigation and Conciliation."

The above-mentioned efforts at the formation of an effective system for the maintenance of peace on the American Continent and for the peaceful solution of any international controversies that might arise were reinforced and fortified during 1933 by the Argentine Anti-War

Treaty, drafted by the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas. This treaty was on the agenda of the Montevideo Conference, but as the instrument had already been signed by a number of countries, it was not made a subject of detailed discussion but opened to the adherence of any country that might wish to sign.

Notwithstanding the constructive action represented by the foregoing agreements, it was obvious to the delegates that the mere signing of a treaty or convention of conciliation or arbitration, or of any number of such instruments, avails but little if the signatory states do not subsequently ratify the agreements and thereby evince their willingness to submit to the provisions thereof. The efforts at settlement of the Chaco controversy have been complicated and made difficult by the fact that although one of the parties has ratified the treaty of 1923, not one of these instruments has been ratified by both countries. It was, therefore, with a view to making these peace instruments generally applicable that the Montevideo Conference adopted a resolution calling upon the countries which have not yet done so, to adhere to and to ratify the instruments having for their object the maintenance of peace, namely, the Treaty to Avoid or Prevent Conflicts of 1923, the Kellogg-Briand Treaty of 1928, the Conciliation Convention of Washington of 1929, the Arbitration Treaty of Washington of 1929, and the Argentine Anti-War Treaty of 1933.

CODIFICATION OF INTERNATIONAL LAW

(CHAPTER II OF THE PROGRAM)

Like the preceding conference, the Seventh International Conference of American States had on its program a chapter dealing with the codification of international law. Because of the importance that attached to other topics, this subject did not command the same wide attention as at Habana. Nevertheless, the conference made important contributions to the work of codifying international law and furthermore adopted a comprehensive program of future activity.

One of the heritages from the Habana Conference was the topic of rights and duties of states. Perhaps on no other subject does the Montevideo Conference emphasize the extraordinary progress that has been made in recent years in inter-American relations. That which at Habana gave rise to long discussion and acrimonious debate and with respect to which it was impossible to arrive at any agreement, was settled without difficulty in the harmonious and conciliatory atmosphere of Montevideo.

The Convention on the Rights and Duties of States contains a specific declaration to the effect that "no State has the right to intervene in the internal or external affairs of another." It was such a

declaration that nearly disrupted the Habana Conference. In the interval, however, between the conference of Habana and that of Montevideo, the attitude and policy of the Government of the United States had changed to such an extent that at Montevideo the Secretary of State of the United States was able to make the following declaration: "I feel safe in undertaking to say that under our support of the general principle of nonintervention as has been suggested no government need fear any intervention on the part of the United States under the Roosevelt Administration."

The delegation of the United States signed the convention with a reservation in which was embodied the foregoing declaration. The reservation, however, contained the further stipulation that "the United States Government in all of its international associations and relationships and conduct will follow scrupulously the doctrine and policies which it has pursued since March 4, which are embodied in the different addresses of President Roosevelt since that time and in the recent peace address of myself [Secretary of State Hull] on the 15th day of December before this conference, and in the law of nations as generally recognized and accepted."

The last clause in the reservation is of course the crux of the whole problem and involves the question as to what is the generally recognized and accepted principle of international law on this subject. As far as the nations of Latin America are concerned their position is perfectly clear, and as for the present administration in the United States, its position has also been clearly stated.

A few days after the conference adjourned the declaration of the Secretary of State of the United States was reiterated and emphasized by President Roosevelt in an address before the Woodrow Wilson Foundation on December 28, 1933. In that address President Roosevelt said:

In Mobile, President Wilson first enunciated the definite statement "that the United States will never again seek one additional foot of territory by conquest." The United States accepted that declaration of policy. President Wilson went further, pointing out with special reference to our Latin American neighbors that material interest must never be made superior to human liberty.

It therefore has seemed clear to me as President that the time has come to supplement and to implement the declaration of President Wilson by the further declaration that the definite policy of the United States from now on is one opposed to armed intervention.

In addition to the Convention on the Rights and Duties of States the conference at Montevideo approved three other conventions on international law: on nationality, on extradition, and on political asylum. The conference furthermore approved a program for continuing in the future the work of codifying international law. In its broad outlines this resolution provides: (1) for the maintenance of the International Commission of Jurists created by the Rio

Conference of 1906 and to be composed of jurists named by each Government; (2) for the creation by each Government of a national committee on codification of international law; (3) for the creation of a commission of experts of seven jurists with the duty of organizing and preparing the work of codification. The resolution further provides that the Pan American Union shall establish a juridical section which shall serve as the general secretariat of the codifying bodies; that the commission of experts shall be constituted through the intermediary of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union; that the first meeting of the commission shall take place as soon as possible at the Pan American Union; and that at the proper time the Governing Board shall call meetings of the International Commission of Jurisconsults.

CIVIL AND POLITICAL RIGHTS OF WOMEN
(CHAPTER III OF THE PROGRAM)

To a degree greater than at any previous conference the subject of civil and political rights of women figured in the program and the discussion of the Montevideo Conference; and equally as significant of the growth and influence of women in inter-American conferences is the number of women who actively participated in the discussions at Montevideo. Three countries appointed women as delegates to the conference: Paraguay, Srta. María F. González; the United States, Miss Sophonisba Breckinridge; and Uruguay, Dr. Sofía A. V. de Demicheli. Three other women were included on the technical advisory staffs of their respective countries: Dr. Berta Lutz, Brazil; Sra. Margarita Robles de Mendoza, Mexico; and Miss Anna A. O'Neill, the United States.

The conference had before it the report of the Inter-American Commission of Women, which had been engaged since the Sixth Conference of 1928 in compiling material on the civil and political status of women in the Republics of the American continent.

The work of the conference in the consideration of this subject resulted in the adoption and signing of a Convention on the Nationality of Women by which the contracting states agree that "there will be no distinction based on sex as regards nationality, in their legislation or in their practice." The conference furthermore adopted a resolution recommending to the Governments of America that they endeavor, so far as the peculiar circumstances of each country will permit, to establish the maximum of equality between men and women in all matters pertaining to the possession, enjoyment, and exercise of civil and political rights. It was the aspiration of the Inter-American Commission of Women that this principle should also be incorporated in a convention, but the conference limited itself to a recommendation that the Governments take action along these lines.

The conference furthermore adopted a resolution expressing appreciation of the work of the Inter-American Commission of Women and continuing its existence so that the next conference may be in possession of proposals which will enable it to give effect to the principle of equality of rights of men and women; and another recommending that at the next conference women delegates be included in all the delegations. The conference also expressed the hope that during the interval between one conference and another the presidency of the commission may rotate among representatives of the various countries which make up that commission.

Addressing a plenary session of the conference at which the report of the Inter-American Commission of Women was submitted, and expressing the sentiments of women as well as emphasizing the importance of the conclusions reached by the conference, Miss Doris Stevens, chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women spoke as follows:

We have cooperated with you in a great and historic act. Those who come after us will understand perhaps better than we do here today the great importance of the acceptance of the first treaty in the world extending equality to women.

It is not accidental that it has happened in the New World. What The Hague Codification Conference rejected in 1930 and what the League of Nations refused to remedy has been done by you.

ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL PROBLEMS

(CHAPTER IV OF THE PROGRAM)

One of the resolutions of outstanding significance adopted at Montevideo was that laying down a broad program of economic, commercial, and tariff policy, to be pursued by the Governments of the American Republics in their future relations with one another and with other nations of the world. It was recognized that the time was not propitious for the negotiation of definite commercial or economic agreements, but it was felt that an expression of policy should be set forth that might serve as a guide to future action. The delegates were furthermore of the opinion that, while the programs of domestic recovery on which many Governments were engaged made it difficult or impossible for them at the moment to undertake international commitments, the reestablishment of economic prosperity upon a firm and lasting basis depends ultimately upon a policy of international cooperation, involving not merely the Republics of this continent but all the nations of the world.

Consequently, the program set forth in the resolution on economic, commercial, and tariff policy adopted by the conference envisages not only the nations of this hemisphere but the world as a whole. Briefly

summarized, the declaration provides as follows: (1) The Governments will undertake to promote trade among their respective peoples and with other nations and to reduce high tariff barriers through the negotiation of bilateral reciprocity treaties; (2) they subscribe, and call upon other Governments of the world to subscribe, to the policy, through simultaneous action of the principal nations, of gradually reducing tariffs and other barriers through the simultaneous initiation of negotiations for the conclusion of bilateral or multilateral agreements for the removal of prohibitions and restrictions and for the reduction of tariff rates to a moderate level; (3) they will revive and revise the convention of 1927, or negotiate a new convention for the abolition of import and export prohibitions and restrictions; (4) they declare that the principle of equality of treatment stands as the basis of all acceptable commercial policy, and that whatever agreements may be entered into shall include the most-favored-nation clause in its unconditional and unrestricted form; (5) they declare further that this principle enjoins upon states using the quota system or other systems for limiting imports the application of these systems in such a way as to dislocate as little as possible the relative competitive positions naturally enjoyed by the various countries in supplying the articles affected; (6) they also declare, and call upon all countries to declare, that they will not invoke their right to demand, under the most-favored-nation clause contained in bilateral treaties to which they may be parties, any benefits of multilateral treaties which have as their general purpose the liberalization of international economic relations and which are open to the accession of all countries.

For the rest, the conference limited itself to a general discussion of the questions of a financial and economic character appearing in the program. In anticipation of an improvement in the general world situation that would make possible definite agreements and in order to permit concentrated attention to be given to such questions at a special conference, provision was made for the Third Pan American Financial Conference to meet at Santiago, Chile. To this conference were referred the topics relating to currency stabilization and the adoption of a common monetary system, the possibility of creating an Inter-American Bank and an Inter-American Organization of Economic and Financial Cooperation, as well as the proposals submitted by the delegation of Mexico, including the question of debts. It was decided that a Commercial Conference, complementary to the Financial Conference, should convene immediately after the Santiago gathering at Buenos Aires. This conference is expected to consider such topics as the reduction of customs duties, transportation facilities, port and customs procedure, sanitary regulations, and the promotion of tourist travel.



BANQUET IN THE CAPITOL, MONTEVIDEO.

The delegates to the Seventh International Conference of American States were guests at a banquet given in their honor by the President of Uruguay in the splendid Salón de los Pasos Perdidos of the capitol.

After considering other topics under this chapter the conference recommended the creation of a number of technical commissions to study and formulate projects on such subjects as bills of exchange, drafts, and checks; bills of lading; foreign corporations; customs procedure and port formalities; and the protection of industrial property.

SOCIAL PROBLEMS—INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION—COMMUNICATIONS

Although these topics did not command such wide interest or general attention as the other sections of the program, the Montevideo Conference adopted a considerable number of resolutions on social questions, intellectual cooperation, communications, and other subjects, which represent important contributions to these various phases of inter-American activity. In fact, it is in these fields that some of the greatest progress has been made in recent years in the work of inter-American approximation. The resolutions adopted at each International Conference of American States constitute a program of activity for the interval between the conferences, and the efforts that have been devoted to this aspect of inter-American cooperation have contributed in no small degree to the development of better knowledge and closer understanding among the Republics of the continent.

Under the head of intellectual cooperation the conference approved the statutes of the Inter-American Institute of Intellectual Cooperation which had been formulated by the Congress of Rectors, Deans and Educators at Habana in 1930, and at the same time requested the Pan American Union to direct, coordinate, and systematize international efforts in the field of intellectual cooperation. A comprehensive resolution on bibliographic cooperation was also adopted, as were resolutions on copyright protection, on archaeological research and on the protection of historical monuments.

One of the important resolutions of the conference was that recommending the establishment of an Inter-American Labor Institute with headquarters at Buenos Aires. Other resolutions emanating from the committee on social problems recommend the holding of an Inter-American Congress on Housing, and the reorganization of the International American Institute for the Protection of Childhood at Montevideo.

Under communications, the conference recommended that a commission of experts be constituted to study the means of still further fostering inter-American aviation. In a resolution on the Pan American Railway the conference recommended not only the completion of the railway as projected by the Inter-Continental Railway Commission, but also that the countries proceed to decide upon the trunk lines of a railroad system which shall link the inland regions of

America and which shall be termed the "Pan American Central Railway."

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The foregoing constitutes a review of the tangible results of the Seventh International Conference of American States. The achievements of the conference, however, and the beneficial results which should result from the sessions, extend far beyond the resolutions and conventions that were agreed upon. These represent merely the formal conclusions; what might be termed the intangible benefits are of even greater importance. The results of the gathering at Montevideo in this respect can be fully appreciated only by those who were privileged to attend the sessions, or by those who may be in a position to read the proceedings as published in the *Diario*. Important as are the formal conclusions, the conditions under which they were formulated and approved and the spirit of cordiality and friendship that existed throughout the sessions have an even greater significance, and are destined to have an even more far-reaching effect. It is no exaggeration to say that as a result of the meeting of representatives of the American Republics at Montevideo the Pan American movement has been placed on a higher plane than it has enjoyed at any time in recent years, and the close relations that were established in the Uruguayan capital between so many leaders of government should prove of inestimable value in giving effect to the conclusions of the conference, as well as in meeting and solving other questions of a Pan American character that may arise in the future.

In concluding this résumé of the Montevideo Conference, the results of that gathering cannot perhaps be better summarized than by quoting the remarks of the chairman of the Argentine delegation, Dr. Carlos Saavedra Lamas, at the closing session:

Constructive work of a juridical nature, gentlemen, must not be disdained. I should not express the real sentiments of this assembly, nor should I make a fair summary of its great deliberations if I let myself be carried away exclusively by this sad fact [the war between Bolivia and Paraguay] which dismays and disheartens us. No, gentlemen! Let us revise the instruments for peace which we have created, let us have faith that with these instruments for peace we shall avoid any other war. And it is in that sense that the work of our conference shows a great effort. . . .

A noble attitude, honoring those who have taken it, an attitude which unites all the delegates and which it is my duty to recall to you, in order that, when you return to your respective countries, you may not forget it, was that of the resolution dealing with non-intervention passed the other day, in view of possible struggles and conflicts between great and small nations. Non-intervention! Thus we have extirpated war in the order of international relations by elementary logic of conduct, banning the use of force in relations between American nations, between great powers and small states, which really are not small because all are equal as far as their juridical attributes are concerned. . . .

But there is in this conference, gentlemen, something of great significance which must also be carefully pointed out. For the first time we have given economic content to Pan Americanism; for the first time we have discussed commercial and tariff policies.

This means that we have felt that there is an inescapable movement toward solidarity which connects and binds us together and which forces us to march directly toward cooperation; and that, gentlemen, represents a great outlook for the future. Upon this we may also predicate that we are to study directly not the superficial aspects but the causes of our problems. We are going to study the causality of our problems because the small countries, weakened by economic insufficiency, must not be faced with the painful inconsistency of being autonomous before the law and overpowered by economic reality. They are capable of increasing their populations, strengthening their internal life, and developing their activities, and America may then present the great and radiant prospect of a group of strong nations all proudly marching hand in hand on the same level along the highway of history.

We are continuing to advance, gentlemen, and I believe that the delegates to this assembly, who have come, some at great sacrifice, from distant lands, from the very ends of the continent, can return satisfied and contented, because they leave behind them machinery already in motion, and have established an orientation toward the development of a fundamental policy beneficial to all.



SUMMER SCHOOLS IN MEXICO AND PUERTO RICO

FROM the time of Prescott and Bancroft, interest in Spanish culture has not been confined to its manifestations in the mother country, but has included the Spanish speaking countries of the New World. The historian, the archaeologist, and the student of language and literature have found fertile fields for research in the Americas, and the results of their painstaking labors have delighted generations in the United States.

Since the year 1921 courses especially planned for English-speaking persons have been offered in Mexico, Puerto Rico, and several of the Central American countries, courses whose successful completion has been recognized by many schools and colleges in the United States. According to the latest information received at the Pan American Union, two universities in the Americas are offering such courses during the summer of 1934—the National University of Mexico and the University of Puerto Rico.

The fourteenth annual session of the summer school at the National University of Mexico will be held from June 27 to August 18, 1934. For undergraduates there are elementary and intermediate courses in the Spanish language and phonetics and in Mexican history (in English). For advanced undergraduates and graduates there are courses in Spanish philology, Spanish and Latin American literature, Mexican and Latin American history and government, Mexican and Spanish arts, Mexican archaeology, and the commercial systems of Mexico. Exclusively for graduates are the advanced courses in Spanish literature. In addition, French and Portuguese are offered, business courses on Mexican law and business procedure (given in English) are open to all students regardless of academic status, and a few noncredit courses on the Aztec languages, Mexican folklore, songs, and dances, and the Mexican Revolution are included in the curriculum. The summer school has a large staff of able professors; besides those regularly teaching in the university, many specialists are invited to cooperate in the courses for foreigners. The school is efficiently organized, and the student is assisted in every possible way.

The value of study in such a school does not lie exclusively in the academic fare offered, excellent though it be. The students find themselves living in a city redolent of the past yet alive to the present and vitally aware of the future. That they may benefit to the full from their surroundings, excursions are organized to archaeological

sites and points interesting for their natural beauty or their history, and typical fiestas given especially for the foreign members of the school.

For others interested in Mexico, its culture, and its present economic evolution, the ninth annual seminar to be held there from July 10-30, 1934, under the auspices of the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, will prove of value. In its preliminary announcement, the committee says, "The seminar in Mexico was designed to make it possible for students and travelers with limited time to get a comprehensive insight into Mexico both as it is and as it intends to be. It consists of three weeks of lectures, field trips, and round-table discussions of Mexico's racial, artistic, political, and economic development." The sessions of the seminar are held both in Mexico City, and in nearby Cuernavaca. At their close two optional conducted trips of a week apiece will enable members to visit the States of Oaxaca and Michoacán.

For those interested in visiting a Spanish-speaking section of the United States, the courses at the University of Puerto Rico will be attractive. The Department of Spanish Studies there has collaborated with the Centro de Estudios Históricos of Madrid and the Sociedad Cultural Española of Puerto Rico in planning the summer programs, so that in the past students there have been privileged to study with distinguished scholars from Spain and Spanish America as well as from Puerto Rico. Although the summer school catalog was not to be available until April, the director has informed the Pan American Union that the elementary and intermediate courses will be given as in previous years, and that there will be an increased number of advanced courses, on *Tres siglos de Don Juan*, *El ensayo contemporáneo*, *Pérez Galdós*, *La crítica literaria*, and *Historia de la literatura puertorriqueña*, respectively. The exact dates for the summer course have not yet been published, but the term usually consists of seven weeks, from the beginning of July to the middle of August.

Further information concerning these organizations may be obtained from the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union, or by addressing respectively the Secretario de la Escuela de Verano, San Cosme 71, México, D.F., México; Señor J. J. Osuna, Director of the Summer School, University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras, P.R.; or the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, 112 East 19th Street, New York, N.Y.



THE INTER-AMERICAN HIGHWAY

NUEVO LAREDO-PANAMA

By GEORGE HOWLAND COX

THIRTY-TWO hundred miles of highway construction connecting the United States with Panama City may soon be completed. The plans and hopes of seven Latin American republics draw nearer fulfillment. The United States Bureau of Public Roads, presenting a three-year reconnaissance survey by American engineers and other data, reports the completion of 1,250 miles of highway, and the feasibility of completing the remaining 1,900 miles at a cost of some \$50,000,000.

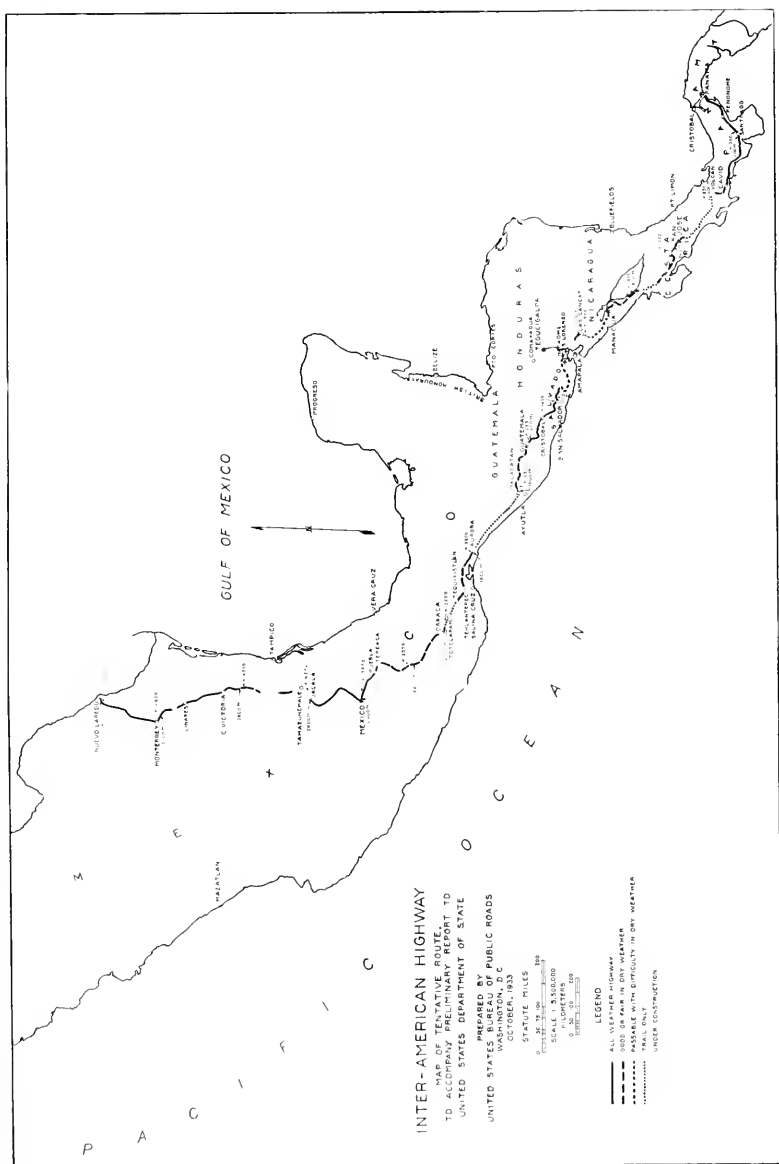
To the Republics of Mexico, Guatemala, Honduras, El Salvador, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and Panama, the Bureau's report should be good news. Once this comparatively small sum of money had been obtained, thousands of unemployed would be put to work, general purchasing power would be increased, standards of living bettered, and a long-needed highway for intercommunication opened for all time.

Today the seven Republics can point only to Guatemala and Mexico and to El Salvador and Guatemala as having international roads for freight and travel. The highways and byways of the other four nations chiefly connect the capitals with interior areas where settlements are most dense.

HISTORY OF THE HIGHWAY

The history of the projected Nuevo Laredo-Panama highway, nearly as long as the Lincoln Highway crossing the United States, begins in 1923. Then it was that the Fifth International Conference of American States met in Santiago, Chile. There a resolution was adopted stating that a congress to study motor-highway measures should be convened at a place and on a date to be determined by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. The idea of an inter-American thoroughfare appealed to the various delegations at Santiago, although they realized that an undertaking so prodigious could not be accomplished over night.

To further this consideration the first Pan American Highway Congress met in Buenos Aires, Argentina, in October 1925, and recommended "the rapid and urgent development of continental highways of the greatest possible efficiency." That meant the construction of national lines to be later merged into one route for in 1928, in Habana,



ROUTE OF THE NUEVO LAREDO-PANAMA SECTION OF THE INTER-AMERICAN HIGHWAY.

Cuba, the Sixth International Conference of American States adopted a resolution placing approval on the construction of one highway connecting the United States with all the other republics of the continent, and urging that member Governments of the nations along the route join in making the project a reality.

The then President of the United States, Mr. Coolidge, was in hearty accord with the idea and declared in a statement to Congress: "We should provide our southern neighbors, if they request it, with engineering advisors for the construction of roads and bridges. Private interests should look with favor upon all reasonable loans sought by these countries to open main lines of travel. Such assistance should be given especially to any project for a highway designed to connect all countries on this hemisphere and thus facilitate intercourse and closer relations among them."

What Congress thought is not necessary to relate. It is sufficient that in 1930 it voted \$50,000 to enable the Secretary of State of the United States to cooperate with the several Governments when he should have found that any or all of such Governments had initiated a request to cooperate in reconnaissance surveys.

Delegates from the Central American countries and the United States decided to seize the opportunity afforded by their homeward journey from the Second Pan American Highway Congress held in Rio de Janeiro in 1929 to meet in Panama in the Inter-American Highway Conference. Here it was voted to organize the Inter-American Highway Commission formed of representatives of the above-mentioned Republics, and to give a corresponding designation to the section of the Pan American Highway from Nuevo Laredo to Panama, already well advanced. An office was set up in Panama with the cooperation of the government there, which also appropriated \$20,000 to be used in carrying out the plans of the Commission.

Making use of the authority granted by the United States Congress to the Secretary of State to cooperate with the Latin American republics for reconnaissance surveys, Guatemala, Honduras, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and Panama asked for assistance. El Salvador did not file a request, for adequate roads had already been constructed along the general route proposed for the highway. Mexico, also, did not seek assistance, since more than half of the suggested route had either been completed or was nearing completion and, further, reconnaissance surveys had already been made of other routes through the rest of Mexican territory.

All that remained to be done was to get started. Consequently, on July 1, 1930, the Bureau of Public Roads, Washington, after being requested by the Secretary of State of the United States to arrange for a reconnaissance survey in Central America and Panama, assigned to the job three American engineers, who were connected with the office in Panama City.



MONTERREY, MEXICO.

On the Inter-American Highway, 200 miles south of Laredo, lies the city of Monterrey, which retains some of its old colonial charm notwithstanding modern industrial development.



TEGUCIGALPA, HONDURAS.

The present automobile road from the Honduran capital to the Pacific port of San Lorenzo will be intersected by the Inter-American Highway.



BRIDGE OVER THE CHOCOYOS RIVER,
GUATEMALA.

In Guatemala as elsewhere many existing roads will be incorporated in the international highway.

So ambitious an undertaking required both the highest skill and the utmost patience. It required a vast amount of perseverance as well. During the three years that followed the Western Hemisphere gave thoughtful attention to the American engineers and their assistants as they made their way through Panama, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, and Guatemala, a distance totaling 1,400 miles, since it did not include some 200 miles in El Salvador, the more than 800 miles of completed highway in Mexico, nor the several hundred miles already surveyed in the latter Republic.

There are high lights, both informative and interesting, in this remarkable engineering achievement. Although the most promising route through Central America to Panama appeared to lie along the Pacific coast, a broad survey of the entire terrain was nevertheless made and maps, photographs, former surveys, and meteorological data consulted. After conferences between engineers and laymen the route chosen was, with certain possible later minor changes, as shown on the map on page 287. This route will make the greatest possible use of existing roads.

In Panama the Central Highway to El Volcán was used. Thence a reconnoitered line, reaching at certain points an elevation of 4,200 feet, was carried on through to the Costa Rican frontier near Llanos de Cañas Gordas.



THE GRANADA-NANDAIME ROAD, NICARAGUA.

The tentative route of the international highway embraces this section.



ROAD SURFACING IN SAN SALVADOR.

A motor highway which connects the capital of El Salvador with the neighboring republic of Guatemala will be included in the Inter-American highway.

The line surveyed in Costa Rica was the longest in the six nations. The report shows that several courses were studied and the route eventually located along the Pacific coast only after exhaustive information had been obtained. This roadway will reach an elevation of approximately 7,000 feet at El Jardín, in the midst of a rich grazing region.

In Nicaragua the survey was determined by the line taken through Costa Rica. Hence the route became confined between the lakes and the city of Managua and the Pacific Ocean, and made use of wagon roads connecting with Las Canoas.

The existing wagon roads in Honduras, the route already selected in Nicaragua, and El Salvador's position along the Pacific all helped to fix the route through Honduras, one purpose being to tie the three Republics together by a nearly straight line. Of especial importance in the choice was the intersection with the road between the capital, Tegucigalpa, and the port of San Lorenzo on the Pacific coast.

In Guatemala the survey first examined a route along the Pacific shore. The line was, however, abandoned for a higher, more inland way traversing a picturesque region already opened by wagon roads. The present main highway from El Salvador to Guatemala City, and from there on many miles in the direction of Mexico, was used. The Mexican border was reached at or near Malacatán and the Suchiate River.

Mexico, as stated, required no survey. Here the Panamanian and Central American construction will join the Mexican national system of highways running generally northward through Aurora, Tehuantepec, Oaxaca, Puebla, Mexico City, Jacala, and Monterrey, and terminating at Nuevo Laredo on the United States frontier.

TECHNICAL DATA

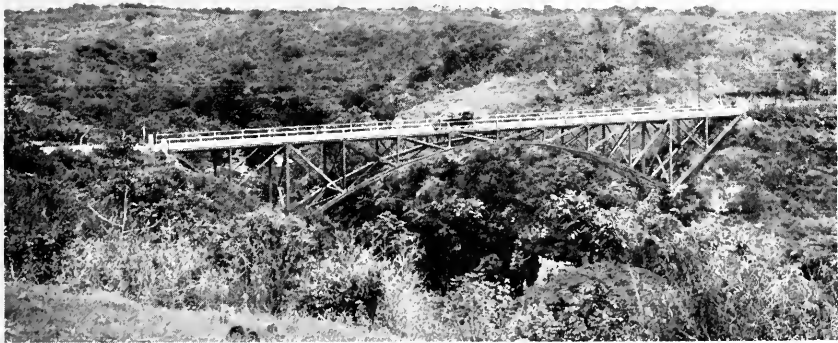
Technical data are generally dry reading. However, certain information provided by the engineers to the Bureau of Public Roads is readily understandable. The report discloses that a fixed standard of width and of other specifications was found to be advisable in the final building of the highway. Where new construction becomes necessary estimates are to be based on a road graded 28 feet wide and surfaced 18 feet. A maximum grade of seven percent is advocated except where the present grade of steeper roads has been found satisfactory. Curves will be restricted to 124 feet. The road will have to wind in many instances to get around deep ravines and climb hills and mountains.

The engineers call for a graded highway with all structures complete. Local materials will provide the surfacing, varying as needed between selected material from excavation, gravel, and waterbound



A LIVESTOCK FARM IN COSTA RICA.

The Costa Rican section of the Inter-American Highway will pass through a rich grazing district in the vicinity of El Jardin.



BRIDGE ON THE NATIONAL HIGHWAY OF PANAMA.

The present all-weather highway from Panama City to the Costa Rican border will form a link in the Pan American Highway.

macadam. A modern surface on each national section of roadway is advised. The highway will be as physically perfect as engineering enterprise can make it. The best construction is essential. More than half the population of Panama and the Central American Republics reside in sections the highway is to traverse. A general drift toward the thoroughfare is expected. Also, there is a generally well-founded anticipation that considerable diversification of crops will be started along the route. Today the Republics depend primarily upon coffee and bananas, although cacao, sugar, chicle, gold, and silver are also exported. Added products will make for the economic well-being of the entire area.

HIGHWAY POSSIBILITIES

Potential mining development has not been overlooked. Gold and silver mines have been worked since before the discovery of America. Other minerals are believed to abound. A modern highway will help provide the transportation facilities now lacking. This applies likewise to areas of valuable hardwood.

Lastly, the far-reaching effect of possible tourist travel must not be minimized. The highway, equipped with facilities essential for motor traffic, will prove increasingly attractive for automobile travel, also for freight. A motor highway skillfully constructed, solidly macadamized, conveniently wide, and entirely safe, wandering across lowlands and climbing the sides of mountains through entrancing tropical and subtropical scenery, could hardly prove other than a magnet to all motorists, especially when it passes through charming cities still preserving much of the Spanish-colonial atmosphere. When the highway is finished from the United States border to Panama, or later when it goes on down through South America and over or under the Andes to Buenos Aires, the cost of construction will be no measure of its influence upon social, economic, and international relations.



MEXICO'S SIX-YEAR PLAN

By GUILLERMO A. SURO

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

THE far-reaching program of social experiment embodied in the six-year plan adopted by the National Revolutionary Party of Mexico to guide governmental activities during the 1934-40 presidential term is rapidly being put into effect through congressional and executive action. Shortly after the convention which met at Querétaro from December 3-6, 1933, had approved the plan,¹ President Rodríguez proposed an amendment to article 27 of the Mexican Constitution which was promptly approved, opening the way for the simplification and coordination of the complicated and sometimes contradictory procedure and agencies instituted to carry out the agrarian reform program.² Ratification by the requisite majority of the 29 States was obtained 3 days after the amendment was introduced in Congress.³ This spirit of cooperation between the President and the national and State legislatures was also evident in the measures which followed this first step in making the plan effective. Congress hastened the regulation and control of industry not only by authorizing the Executive to create a federal commission to organize and direct a national electric power system and to form a company for controlling the internal market for petroleum and its byproducts but, more important yet, by granting the President extraordinary powers to promulgate laws or amend existing legislation on a wide variety of matters. The President may make use of these powers until August 31, 1934, and it is expected that through Executive decrees the bases of the plan will have been well laid when the new administration takes office after the elections next July. Although the National Revolutionary Party expresses its belief in a planned international economy, it believes that Mexico, in view of the present tendency towards economic nationalism in other countries, is obliged to adopt a similar policy which, however, shall avoid isolation and shall permit participation in international economic agreements.

With respect to the agrarian reform program the six-year plan proposes to speed up the distribution of land among the small farmers by increasing the personnel in charge of the work, simplifying the procedure to the utmost, making permanent all provisional land

¹ *El Economista*, Mexico, December 7, 1933, pp. 1157-1171.

² Article 27 as amended appears in the *Diario Oficial*, January 10, 1934.

³ *El Universal*, México, December 24, 1933.

grants, and eliminating the legal difficulties which prevent certain population groups from enjoying the benefits of the agrarian laws. In addition to the distribution of communal lands, special emphasis will be placed on the division of large private estates, the redistribution of the rural population, and the colonization of the interior by Mexican citizens. Large estates belonging to the Federal and State Governments will be subject to communal land grants or to division in parcels among small farmers, and the laws which permit the Government to turn over to farmers lands not cultivated by their owners will be strictly enforced.⁴

To accelerate the distribution of land, the annual Federal appropriation for this work has been increased from 1,800,000 pesos to 4,000,000 pesos, and the legal process greatly simplified by the amendment of article 27 which sets up an agricultural department, directly under the Executive, in charge of enforcing the agrarian laws.⁵ Further steps along this line are to be taken by the President, who has been authorized by Congress to add to, amend, and promulgate laws on agrarian matters in order to unify existing legislation⁶ and to promulgate new laws or amend those existing on national lands, unused public lands and others, irrigation, colonization and forestry.⁷

Farmers are not only to be given land but taught how to use it and supplied with the means of obtaining credit. Institutes, laboratories, and experimental farms are to be established in order to make a scientific survey of the agricultural possibilities of the nation. The organization of the farmers into cooperative associations is to be fostered so as to make possible improvements in the methods of cultivation by means such as the use of agricultural machinery, and the common utilization of such facilities as processing plants, warehouses, packing plants, means of transportation, an insurance system, and marketing organizations. These associations are to serve also as the channels for the distribution of credit, which the plan proposes to expand by having the Government furnish the agricultural credit system with 50,000,000 pesos, 20,000,000 of which are to be provided during 1934.

Already President Rodríguez through the extraordinary powers in financial matters granted to him by Congress, has issued a law⁸ which reorganizes the agricultural credit system of the country in accordance with the experience gained through the application of the previous agrarian credit laws of 1926 and 1931. At the head of the system is

⁴ *El Universal*, January 23, 1934. The final draft of the whole plan appears in *El Nacional*, Mexico, D.F., February 22, 1934.

⁵ *Diario Oficial*, January 17, 1934.

⁶ *Diario Oficial*, January 12, 1934.

⁷ *Diario Oficial*, January 9, 1934.

⁸ Agrarian Credit Law, *Diario Oficial*, February 9, 1934



NATIONAL PALACE, MEXICO CITY.

the National Agricultural Credit Bank, followed by regional banks, local agricultural credit societies, unions of local societies, auxiliary and associate institutions, and the so-called societies of collective agricultural interest: i.e., temporary associations organized to carry out particular projects of benefit to the community as a whole. The experience of the National Agricultural Credit Bank from 1926 to 1930 was that small farmers affiliated with local societies were its best customers and that, on the other hand, large farmers were not willing to form cooperatives of the sort envisioned by the provisions for the creation of regional credit societies according to the 1926 law. The conclusions derived from these experiences were carried to an extreme in the 1931 law, which forbade the bank to deal with individuals and restricted its operations to small farmers and communal landholders who were willing to be jointly and unlimitedly responsible for the loans made to their associations. Because it is evident that there are many farmers of some means who do not want to accept joint and unlimited responsibility, as well as many small farmers located in zones of large and medium sized estates where it is physically impossible to form associations, these restrictions have been done away with in the new law. Members of associations of communal landholders will continue to be jointly and unlimitedly liable but those associations formed by small and middle farmers may limit their liability according to their resources. The bank may again make loans to individuals, but only to small and middle farmers, in amounts not to exceed 25,000 pesos and with higher interest rates, shorter terms, and greater inspection costs than for the farmer who is a member of a cooperative. The law thus emphasizes the associative character which agricultural credit should have. The local cooperative associations are to be the basic units of the agricultural credit system. Above them are the unions formed by local societies in the various zones. Since local societies must reach an advanced state of development before they can unite, regional banks are to take their place in the meantime. In view of the lack of enthusiasm of middle and large farmers to form cooperatives, the regional agricultural credit societies have been done away with, but in recognition of the need for temporary association and credit to carry out certain agricultural projects a type of association new to the Mexican agricultural credit system has been created: a society of collective agricultural interest to be dissolved when the particular project for which it was organized has been completed and the loans secured for it amortized.⁹

Since irrigation is considered a necessary complement to the agricultural promotion policy the plan provides for the expenditure by the Federal Government of 50,000,000 pesos for the maintenance of three national irrigation systems already finished, the completion of seven new

⁹ *El Universal*, February 7, 1934.

ones under way, and the construction of six others with the understanding that the proceeds of sales of irrigated lands shall be turned over to the agricultural credit banks in the regions concerned. Since a great deal of the land in Mexico is good only for pastures, the plan provides various measures for the improvement of cattle breeds and the promotion of stockraising in general. The plan also includes a comprehensive program for the conservation of forests and for reforestation, under an autonomous forestry department.

With regard to labor, the aim is to raise wages and increase the standard of living of the great mass of workers. To this end the complete realization of the principles contained in articles 27 and 123 of the Mexican Constitution is deemed essential, especially those principles which, like the minimum wage, have recently been the object of consideration by the Federal Government.¹⁰ The plan emphasizes the need for the unionization of workers and the promotion of collective bargaining and provides for the establishment of a system of social insurance to cover risks not included in the Federal Labor Law. In addition to the cheap and hygienic living quarters which employers must provide for workers in accordance with the labor law, the State is to offer laborers facilities to rent or purchase adequate homes. The Government will regulate and aid employment agencies and labor exchanges, coordinating them with the institutes for professional guidance and research on the status of workers which it is to establish. During 1934 there is to be a revision of the system of conciliation and arbitration boards and labor tribunals and a reorganization of the system of inspection of labor unions. A complete revision of the Federal Labor Law will be made later and a social research institute established.

Under present conditions it is believed necessary that the State shall act to coordinate the interests of manufacturers, merchants, and consumers. Various means are suggested for reducing maladjustment of production, distribution, and consumption.

All possible legal means will be employed to nationalize sub-soil resources and to create national reserve zones. The exploitation of natural resources is to be regulated and the participation of Mexican companies in the mining and petroleum industries fostered. The present method of making petroleum concessions is to be modified. Every effort will be made to lower the price of electric power. With regard to foreign trade, the plan provides for aid to the exportation of those commodities which can be produced advantageously, and discourages the importation of products competing with national

¹⁰ An intensive campaign has been waged by the Executive to secure the fixing of a minimum wage throughout the Republic. As a result a minimum wage for the Federal District was fixed on December 29, 1933. This is 1.50 pesos for city workers and 1 peso for field hands whose cost of living is reduced by the fact that they also receive lodging, land for cultivation, etc., from their employers. It is understood that this minimum scale has been generally accepted throughout the Republic. *Diario Oficial*, January 5, 1934.

industries which are rendering satisfactory services without being a burden to the State. Imports will be made directly from the producing countries to eliminate intermediaries.

Part of this program is already being put into effect. President Rodríguez has been authorized by Congress¹¹ to establish a government-controlled company capable of regulating the internal market for petroleum and its byproducts, of supplying the needs of the country in general and of the Government and the National Railways of Mexico in particular, of training Mexicans in petroleum technology, and of promoting the investment of Mexican capital in the petroleum industry. The company which will eventually produce, refine, and market is to be capitalized at 20,000,000 pesos. Fifty percent of the stock will be subscribed and paid for by the Government in the form of concessions to the company, and the remainder is expected to be subscribed by private Mexican capital. According to the law shares cannot be acquired by foreigners. The company has been organized under the name *Petróleos de Mexico, S.A.* (Petromex). The assets of the Administrative Control of National Petroleum, valued at about 2,000,000 pesos, have been transferred to it. The remaining 8,000,000 pesos which the Government is to subscribe will be paid by concessions of petroleum lands in the national reserves, the area of which is estimated at about 10,000,000 hectares. According to a statement of the Ministry of National Economy, which appeared in the March 5, 1934, issue of *El Universal*, Petromex will have about 6,000 barrels of petroleum daily to begin operations, 1,500 barrels from the wells of the Administrative Control and 4,500 barrels which it can purchase from independent producers. By drilling wells in the national reserves the company is expected to double its daily output within two years and be able to supply 40 percent of the national petroleum consumption. The National Railways of Mexico alone are estimated to consume about 12,000 barrels of petroleum daily. It is said that the plant at Tampico transferred from the Administrative Control to Petromex can refine 1,500 barrels daily and that its capacity can be doubled so that by the end of the first year of operations it may be able to refine 3,000 barrels, producing 450 barrels of gasoline daily.

Further regulatory measures of the extractive industries are expected to be issued, since the President has also been authorized to amend the petroleum law of December 26, 1925 and the mining law of August 2, 1930.¹²

The electric power industry is also to be controlled. The President has been authorized¹³ to form a Federal Electric Commission, composed of six members, two of whom are to be appointed by the

¹¹ *Diario Oficial*, January 26, 1934.

¹² *Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1934.

¹³ *Id.*

Executive, three by the consumers and one by the State Governments, to endeavor to establish and manage a national system for the generation, transmission, and distribution of electric power at the lowest possible rates. This system will be composed of semi-official companies and consumers' cooperatives. Other companies holding concessions will be strictly regulated.

To facilitate export trade a commission to draft the specifications and standards for agricultural and industrial products is being organized by the Ministry of National Economy.¹⁴ Among the extraordinary powers granted by Congress to the Executive in matters related to commerce are those authorizing him to decree a new commercial code and special laws governing commerce and mercantile procedure.¹⁵ He has also been authorized to issue a new organic law regulating Article 28 of the Constitution governing monopolies.¹⁶

The six-year plan also includes an elaborate program for the construction of highways and railroads. The Federal Government is to complete this year the road from Laredo to Mexico City, which continues to Acapulco on the Pacific coast, and to construct, within the six years, another trunk highway from Sonora to Chiapas, that is, from the United States to the Guatemalan border. Local roads connecting with these trunk highways or with the railroads are to be built by the States with the help of the Federal Government which will give State governments an amount equal to the sum which they spend in highway building provided they devote the whole of their share of the gasoline tax to this purpose. A Presidential decree issued on February 8 authorizes the Ministry of Finance to contract an internal loan of 20,000,000 pesos, the proceeds to be used for the completion of the Laredo-Mexico City highway and for the construction of such other roads as the Executive may determine.¹⁷ The placing of these highway bonds has already been arranged with several Mexican banking institutions. A total of 60,000,000 pesos will be spent during the six-year period in the construction of four railway lines opening up regions now isolated: one from Ejutla, Oaxaca, to a Pacific seaport, another from Uruapan, Michoacán, to a point on the river Balsas, with a possible extension toward the Pacific, a third from Santa Lucrecia, Vera Cruz, to Campeche, capital of the State of the same name, and a fourth from Mazatlán to Durango.

To promote the development of aviation by private companies the Government will grant them subsidies in amounts equivalent to all

¹⁴ *Diario Oficial*, January 4, 1934.

¹⁵ *Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1934.

¹⁶ *Id.* Until this law is enacted and in order to lower the prices for medicinal products, which were considered excessive, the Executive issued on February 9, 1934 a decree amending the monopolies law of August 18, 1931, including medicines of all classes among the articles considered as necessities, and empowering the Ministry of National Economy to fix the maximum wholesale and retail prices of medicinal products when market conditions make it necessary.

¹⁷ *Diario Oficial*, February 12, 1934.

taxes paid on the gasoline consumed by their planes during the first year, 75 percent of the tax during the second, 50 percent during the third, and 25 percent during the fourth. Civil aviation schools and factories for the construction of airplanes and motors will also be subsidized. The Federal Government is to construct the necessary border airports and with the cooperation of the State governments will build all those needed in the interior of the country. The establishment of a merchant marine is also to be fostered by the purchase of vessels and by port improvements.

With regard to migration, the plan encourages the immigration of aliens of Latin American origin, trained farmers and technicians; restricts emigration of Mexican laborers; fosters the repatriation of Mexican emigrants, especially those now in the United States, and advocates the enactment of a law which will allow the government to transfer people from over-populated regions or those in which there is not sufficient employment to zones offering better opportunities. A National Bureau of Migratory Movements is to be established to supervise this work.

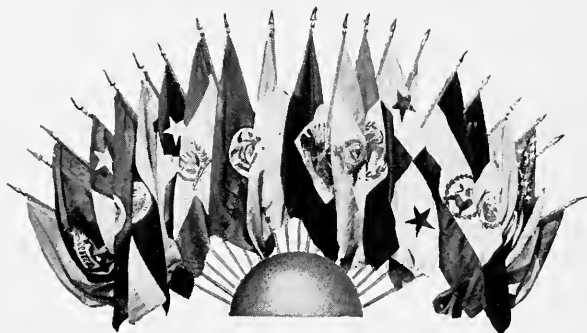
In the field of public finance, the limits of the taxation powers of the Federal, State, and municipal governments are to be clearly defined in an amendment to the constitution, internal tax barriers and the sale tax eliminated, and direct taxes are to predominate over indirect. The inheritance tax is to be used to prevent the undue accumulation of wealth through the perpetuation of great fortunes. The plan provides for a modification of the income tax so that it will be heaviest on income derived from capital alone, less heavy on that derived from capital and labor, and lightest on income derived from labor alone. This principle was incorporated in the decree issued by President Rodríguez on December 29, 1933, which contained important modifications to the income tax law then in force.¹⁸ In placing import duties on foreign goods similar to those manufactured in Mexico, care will be taken not to protect industries which cannot meet foreign competition unless given excessive protection through a tariff policy based on an erroneous conception of nationalism.

Although the Mexican six-year plan is primarily economic, it does not neglect public health and education. Appropriations for public health in the Federal budget ranged from 1.93 percent of the total Federal expenditures in 1926 to 3.03 percent in 1933, the money being spent mostly in services in Mexico City. Between 1934 and 1939 the proportion of the Federal expenditures devoted to public health will be increased gradually from 3.40 percent this year to 5.50 percent in 1939. The increase over the 1933 appropriation is to be devoted exclusively to public-health services in the interior of the country.

¹⁸ *Diario Oficial*, December 30, 1933.

At least 15 percent of the total Federal expenditures will be devoted to education during 1934, this proportion to be gradually increased to 20 percent in 1939. Special attention will be paid to rural and primary education. The number of rural schools maintained by the Federal Government is to be increased by 1,000 during 1934, by 2,000 during each of the next four years, and by 3,000 in 1939. The plan emphasizes technical training for workers as against university training for the preparation of lawyers, doctors, and other professional men. The exercise of professions is to be regulated through laws based on Article 4 of the Constitution. Article 3 of the Constitution is to be modified so that primary and secondary education will be given only in schools supported by the Government or those directly under its control and supervision; in either case education shall be not only lay but based on the socialist doctrines upheld by the Mexican Revolution.





PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Conference resolutions.—Steps were taken by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at the session held February 21, 1934, to give effect to the resolutions adopted at the Seventh Pan American Conference which met at Montevideo in December last, particularly those resolutions entrusting specific functions to the Pan American Union. The Director General of the Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe, submitted to the Board a report summarizing the results of the Montevideo Conference. The Board adopted a series of resolutions appointing special committees to consider the action to be taken on these resolutions and authorizing the Director General to make studies and to submit specific recommendations at a subsequent meeting of the Board.

Agricultural Conference in 1935.—The Board approved the proposal that the Second Inter-American Conference on Agriculture meet at Mexico City in 1935. A communication from the Government of Mexico expressed the willingness of that Government to have the conference meet in its capital and the Governing Board accordingly approved the proposal.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Tributes paid at Montevideo.—The Seventh International Conference of American States, which met in Montevideo in December 1933, passed a resolution of condolence to Chile on the death in 1930 of the eminent historian and bibliographer, José Toribio Medina. It voted that a room in the Pan American Institute of History and Geography be named in his honor. The Pan American Union has been designated to create a fund to award an annual prize for the best compilation of American bibliography prepared by a citizen of any country which is a member of the Union. The conference also

voted condolences to Cuba on the recent death of Enrique José Varona, noted writer and educator. In the same resolution it paid homage to Gabriel René Moreno, the illustrious Bolivian bibliographer and writer.

Literary awards.—Awards have been made in connection with the *Fiesta del Libro* which is sponsored annually by the Consejo Nacional de Mujeres de la República Argentina. Twenty-five prizes were awarded to women for the best works in the various fields of Argentine literature. The year 1933 marked the twenty-fifth anniversary of this competition.

Recent bibliographies.—Sr. Juan B. Iguíniz has compiled a bibliography of Mexican bibliography which appeared serially in *El Libro y el Pueblo*, Mexico, D.F., from July to December 1933.

Since 1929 there has been appearing in each number of *La Literatura Argentina*, Buenos Aires, a small section of a national bibliography, compiled and annotated by Manual Selva and Lorenzo J. Rosso. It is published with separate pagination so that it can be removed from the periodical and bound with other sections. *La Literatura Argentina* is devoted to reviews of new books, together with biographical sketches and portraits of Argentine authors.

A list of theses which have been presented during 1933 in fulfillment of requirements for degrees in the several schools of the National University of Mexico appeared in the *Boletín de la Biblioteca de la Universidad Nacional de México* for January–April 1933.

The Mexican Committee on Bibliography published a report entitled *Libros y bibliotecas de Mexico* as its contribution to the study of topic 22 on the agenda of the Seventh International Conference of American States, which refers to a study of bibliography throughout the American continent. The report, a pamphlet of 21 pages, is a brief history of libraries and books in Mexico with chapters on bibliography, the publication and sale of books, the organization of intellectual activities, library training, library administration, and national and international cooperation in library matters.

Bibliographies on Pan American Topics is the title of the latest addition to the bibliographic series published by the Pan American Union. It is a compilation of 11 short reading lists designed for use of high schools. It is number 12 of the series and comprises 15 pages. The Union has a few copies of the reading lists on *Education in Latin America*, *Latin American Literature*, and *Arts in Latin America* for free distribution as long as the supply lasts.

Library Science in Mexico.—A notable contribution to library science appeared in the annual report of the Director of Libraries of Mexico, Señor Eduardo Colín; this is included in the report of the Ministry of Education for 1933. A comparatively extensive list of cataloging rules and subject headings has been drafted by Señorita Juana Manrique de Lara, of the Bureau of Libraries. Señor Emilio

Paz, librarian of the Social Service Library, has adapted the Brussels decimal system of classification to the libraries of Mexico. Other rules and guides have been included and all in all the appendix to Señor Colín's report forms a manual of library practices. The report states that there has been good progress in cataloging and classification. Within one year 93,000 cards have been made for 10,000 volumes.

New library.—The city of Cienfuegos in Cuba established a municipal library last December with Sr. José María Marco as librarian.

Library renamed.—The library of the Academia Nacional de Ciencias "Antonio Alzate" of Mexico City has been renamed the Rafael Aguilar y Santillán Library in honor of Dr. Aguilar y Santillán, a charter member of the society, its honorary president, secretary for life, and editor of the *Memorias y revista de la Sociedad científica "Antonio Alzate."* Dr. Aguilar was a delegate to the meeting of the American Library Association in Chicago last year, and while in this country visited the Columbus Memorial Library.

Literary centenary.—The *Casa de Montalvo*, published at Ambato, Ecuador, by the Biblioteca de Autores Nacionales, devoted the entire issue for June–August, 1933 to Juan León Mera, the illustrious Ecuadorean poet and writer, on the occasion of the centenary of his birth, June 28.

Recent acquisitions.—The following list of books has been selected from those which have been accessioned during the past month:

La fiebre amarilla en Guatemala: homenaje al Dr. Carlos J. Finlay en el primer centenario de su nacimiento: 3 de diciembre 1933, editado por la Universidad nacional de Guatemala. Guatemala [Topografía nacional] 1933. 175 p. ports. 27 cm.

Homenaje al Dr. Manuel Amador Guerrero en el centenario de su nacimiento, 1833–junio 30–1933, compilación hecha por Juan Antonio Susto. . . . Panamá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 170 p. port. 25½ cm. (Publicaciones de la Academia panameña de la historia, volumen II)

Florencio Sánchez and the Argentine theatre, by Ruth Richardson. . . . New York, Instituto de las Españas, 1933. 243 p. facsims. 20 cm.

Venezuelan prose fiction, by Dillwyn F. Ratcliff. . . . New York, Instituto de las Españas, 1933. 286 p. 20 cm.

Lecciones de historia (historia de Venezuela . . .) por Roberto Martínez Centeno. Caracas, Editorial "Elite", lit. y tip. Vargas, 1931. 2 v. 21 cm. (Publicaciones del Instituto "San Pablo", Caracas, Venezuela.)

Exposición de libros de historia y geografía americana abierta en la Biblioteca Nacional a iniciativa del Ateneo de El Salvador; lista de las obras expuestas. . . . San Salvador, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 25 p. 24½ cm.

Historia contemporánea de Colombia desde la disolución de la antigua república de ese nombre hasta la época presente, por Gustavo Arboleda. . . . Cali, 1933. t. IV: La guerra de Melo y administraciones de Obaldía y Mallarino, 1854–57.

Iconografía del General Fructuoso Rivera, vencedor de Rincón, conquistador de las misiones y primer presidente de la república [por] Dr. J. M. Fernández Saldaña. Montevideo, Imprenta militar, 1928. 93 p. plates, ports. 28 cm.

Laws of Argentina in English with regulations and recent amendments to the commercial code and copyright law, compiled and translated by J. A. & E. de Marval. Buenos Aires, J. A. & E. de Marval, 1933. 1244 p. 24 cm.

A nacionalidade da mulher casada [por] Bertha Lutz. Rio de Janeiro, Irmãos Pongetti, 1933. 108 p. 23 cm.

Guía del turista, confeccionada por la Oficina municipal de turismo de Valparaíso. Valparaíso, Imprenta y encuadernación Roma, 1933. 192 p., incl. illus. 18½ cm.

Discursos [por] José Figueroa Alcorta. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos argentinos de L. J. Rosso, 1933. 315 p. fron. (port.) 23½ cm.

Ensayo sobre los artifices de la platería en el Buenos Aires colonial, por Fernando Márquez Miranda . . . Buenos Aires, Imprenta de la Universidad, 1933. 235, lxxvii p. front. 28 cm. (Facultad de filosofía y letras, publicaciones del Instituto de investigaciones históricas, número LXII.)

Filosofía universitaria venezolana, 1788-1821, discurso y estudio histórico presentados por el Dr. Caracciolo Parra, en el acto de su incorporación a la Academia venezolana correspondiente de la española, MDCCCXXXIII. Caracas, Parra León hermanos [1933]. 280 p. 23 cm.

Historia de España y su influencia en la historia universal, por D. Antonio Ballesteros y Beretta. Barcelona, Salvat editores, s.a., 1934. tomo VII: 804 p., incl. illus., ports. plates. 25½ cm.

Víctor Mideros, por José Rumazo González. Quito, Editorial Bolívar [1932]. 52 p. 24 plates. 25½ cm. (Biblioteca ecuatoriana . . . serie independiente.)

Enciclopedia cubana juridico-administrativa, por el Dr. E. Rodríguez Herrera. . . La Habana, Arellano compañía, 1933. tomo I: 645 p. 30 cm.

Las misiones culturales, 1932-33 [por la] secretaría de educación pública [de México]. México [Talleres gráficos de la nación] 1933. 357 p. illus., maps, tables, diags. 30 cm.

Los problemas de la unificación americana, por Eugenio Orego Vicuña. [Santiago de Chile] Universidad de Chile, 1933. 30 p.

Education in Latin America [by] Henry Lester Smith . . . and Harold Littell . . . New York [etc.], American book company [c1934]. 431 p. 21 cm.

New periodicals.—New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

Barranquilla; revista mensual ilustrada, editada bajo los auspicios del gobierno del Departamento del Atlántico. Barranquilla, 1933. Volumen I, núm. I, noviembre 1933. 32 p. illus. 29x22 cm. Monthly. Address: Dirección de la imprenta departamental, Barranquilla, Colombia.

Boletín municipal de estadística; publicación semestral del registro cantonal de la población i estadística. Guayaquil, 1933. Año I, núm. I, junio de 1933. 282 p. tables, col. diags. 28½x19 cm. Semi-annual. Editor: Lcdo. Pedro Hidalgo González. Address: Guayaquil, Ecuador.

Revista da escola militar. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 1933. Ano XXXIII, outubro, 1933. 188 p. illus., ports. 32x23 cm. Editor: Nelson Werneck Sodré. Monthly. Address: Escola Militar, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Revista econômica; órgão oficial da Caixa econômica do Rio de Janeiro. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Ano I, num. 1, novembro 1933. 137 p. 22x15½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Solano da Cunha. Address: Edifício 13 de Maio, Rua 13 de Maio, 33, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Don Quijote; revista mensual estudiantil del Colegio del Estado. Puebla de Z., México, 1933. Tomo II, núm. 16, septiembre de 1933. 32 p. illus., ports. 34½x23 cm. Monthly. Editor: A. García Verdín. Address: Colegio del Estado, Puebla de Z., México.

Nuevos Horizontes; órgano de la Legión femenina de educación popular. Guayaquil, 1933. Año 1, núm. 1, octubre de 1933. 28 p. illus., port. 31½x22 cm. Monthly. Editor: Rosa Borja de Yeaza. Address: Legión femenina de educación popular, Guayaquil, Ecuador.

Revista da directoria de engenharia. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Ano ii, num. 4, abril 1933. 80 p. illus., ports., diags. 32½x23½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Armando de Godoy. Address: Rua General Camara, 260, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Estudos jurídicos e sociais. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Vol. 1, num. 1, abril 1933. 141 p. 23½x17 cm. Monthly. Address: Praça Floriano, 39, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Brasil feminino. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Ano ii, num. 13, junho-julho de 1933. [43] p. illus., ports. 32x24 cm. Monthly. Editor: Iveta Ribeiro. Address: Avenida Almirante Barroso, 1, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Boletín de los debates de la Cámara de diputados de la República de Costa Rica. San José, 1932. Año 1, período ordinario, tomo 1, núm. 4, 30 de julio de 1932. 38 p. 24x17 cm. Daily. Editor: Pío Luis Acuña. Address: Secretaría del Congreso, San José, Costa Rica.

Boletín del Seminario de derecho, de la Escuela de ciencias jurídicas y sociales de Santiago. Santiago de Chile, 1933. Núm. 2, 1933. 121 p. 26 cm. Address: Escuela de ciencias jurídicas y sociales, Universidad de Chile, Santiago de Chile.

Antigua. Antigua, Guatemala, 1933. Año 1, núm. 1, 12 de diciembre 1933. 8 p. illus., ports. 36x30 cm. Weekly. Editors: Guillermo Arzú M. and René Orantes A. Address: Antigua, Guatemala.

Bahia rural; publicação mensal dedicada aos interesses economicos y sociais da coletividade agrícola. Bahia, Brazil, 1931. Ano 1, num. 1, 7 de setembro de 1933. [52] p. illus., tables. 24½x19½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Agronomo Octavio Gonçalves Peres. Address: Bahia, Brazil.

Alma nacional; revista mensual de educación. Medellín, Colombia, 1933. Vol. 1, núm. 4, 1º de noviembre de 1933. p. [85]-116. 24½x17 cm. Monthly. Address: Apartado núm. 346, Medellín, Colombia.

Revista tributaria peruana; órgano del Seminario de estudio económicos. Lima, 1933. Vol. 1, núm. 2, octubre de 1933. p. 65-136. 24x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: J. Alfredo Vidal Loredó. Address: Casilla 628, Lima, Perú.

Mexican trade journal. Mexico, 1933. Volume 1, number 1, January 1934. 18 p. 34x23½ cm. Monthly. Editors: R. Loera y Chávez and Eduardo Hornedo. Address: México, D.F.

Revista de la Cámara de comercio de Ibagué; órgano de los intereses del comercio y la industria. Ibagué, Colombia, 1933. Año 1, volumen 1º, noviembre de 1933. 24 p. 24x17 cm. Monthly. Editor: M. J. Álvarez A. Address: Ibagué, Tolima, Colombia.

Momento; revista mensal critico-bibliografica. Recife, Brazil, 1933. Ano 1, num. 2, dezembro 1933. 16 p. illus. 32x23 cm. Monthly. Editors: Aderbal Jurema and Odorico Tavares. Address: Conde da Boa Vista, 1274, Recife, Pernambuco, Brazil.



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

THE PORT WORKS AT CALLAO

Callao is the principal port in Peru and one of the most important on the west coast of South America, where nature has not been generous with natural harbors. A 60-year concession for the construction and operation of port works there was granted in 1877 to a French company, but before the term expired, the facilities provided proved inadequate. In 1926, therefore, the President of the Republic requested an American company to make a survey and submit recommendations, with the result that, after the necessary legislation had been enacted, a series of contracts was signed with the firm from February 10, 1928, to May 6, 1930.

These contracts were undertaken in order to give Callao a fully protected harbor where vessels from all parts of the world could discharge their cargo at modern docks adjacent to adequate warehouses instead of having to land it via lighters. Work was begun at once and continued uninterruptedly until after a change of administration, when all foreign contracts were subjected to special scrutiny. The work had been largely completed and over 90 percent of the contract price agreed upon paid by the Peruvian Government.

The new port works are located just north of the earlier concession, but including it within the protected area, so that the southern breakwater is a continuation of the old port's outer mole. The breakwaters, which have an entrance width of 600 feet, enclose about one and one-eighth square miles of water. Four piers have been built capable of furnishing eight full-sized berths; in designing the port, provision was made for adding others as necessity should arise. Less important local and coastwise shipping, according to the project, will be diverted to the old docks. The two middle piers have modern fireproof sheds, the other two being open. Each is connected by standard-gage railroad tracks with the main line in Callao, so that there may be direct rail service to the interior of the country.

In August 1932 a commission of three, two engineers and a representative of the Ministry of Public Works, was appointed to investigate and report on the work completed and to make suggestions for concluding the uncompleted sections. The commission reported in November of the same year, recommending that, in view of the lessened port movement and changed economic conditions, important reductions be made in the work still to be done, and certain modifications introduced in the financial phases of the contracts.



Courtesy of the Frederick Shure Corporation.

PLAN OF NEW CALLAO PORT WORKS.

In this artist's sketch of the proposed port works, submitted with the original report, may be seen the old port, in the background, the piers with provision for eight vessels as well as with rail connection with the interior, and the allowance for the construction of additional docks as the growth of the port warrants.



Courtesy of the Frederick Sware Corporation.

VIEW OF THE NEW PORT WORKS FROM THE AIR.

After consultations between representatives of the Government and of the firm holding the original contracts, a new contract was drawn up and signed by the Minister of Promotion and the representative of the corporation, and approved by the President of the Republic on January 17, 1934.

The project is to be finished within the stipulated period of 8 months from the date of signing the contract; the construction of nearly 4.5 miles of railway track connecting the port with the main railway line, the installation of electricity, the erection of two lighthouses, the completion of the customhouse, the construction of a warehouse and workshops, the supplying of potable water and fire-fighting apparatus, the furnishing of equipment for loading vessels, and the laying of a macadam road giving access to the port are the chief tasks still to be done.

When the port works are completed, the Republic will accept them officially, in accordance with specifications and contracts in force, but the acceptance will not be final until 12 months thereafter.

NECROLOGY

LEONIDAS PACHECO CABEZAS.—The Secretary of Foreign Affairs of Costa Rica, Señor Leonidas Pacheco Cabezas, died suddenly on February 7, 1934. Señor Pacheco had won an enviable reputation in letters, in diplomacy, and in statesmanship. He contributed, under several pseudonyms, to periodicals which were proud to publish his delightful essays. As a member of Congress his ability and vision made him an outstanding figure; during the session of 1917-18 he was president of the Senate. He had held a cabinet position under President Ascensión Esquivel, as well as in the present administration. In Mexico, Belgium, and Panama Señor Pacheco represented his country as minister plenipotentiary, and several treaties which he was instrumental in concluding remain as monuments to his diplomatic gifts.

MANUEL AUGUSTO MONTES DE OCA.—One of the most distinguished scholars and diplomats of Argentina, Dr. Manuel Augusto Montes de Oca, died in Buenos Aires on January 27, 1934. In the fields of history and law he was internationally known, his monographs and articles being published both in Argentina and abroad. Dr. Montes de Oca's first diplomatic appointment was as counselor to the Argentine representative in the arbitration of the boundary dispute with Chile, held in London 1898-1903. Shortly after his return to Argentina he was offered, and accepted, the portfolio of Foreign Affairs, resigning a year later to take that of the Interior. He was a delegate to the Fourth International Conference of American States meeting at Buenos Aires in 1910. Shortly thereafter he retired from public life, although he assumed the chairmanship of the Argentine delegation to the Fifth International Conference of American States held in Santiago, Chile, in 1923.

At the time of his death, Doctor Montes de Oca was director of several railway companies and large corporations. The learned societies abroad of which he was a member included the Academy of Jurisprudence of Rio de Janeiro, the American Society of Political and Social Science of Philadelphia, and the Royal Geographic Society of London. His decorations included the orders of the Legion of Honor, Isabel the Catholic, and the Coronation of Edward VII.



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MAY

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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III

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COLONEL CARLOS MENDIETA.
PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT OF CUBA.



VOL. LXVIII

MAY 1934

No. 5

COLONEL CARLOS MENDIETA PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT OF CUBA

THE new President of the Republic of Cuba, Colonel Carlos Mendieta y Montefur, is one of the most notable men of all those who have become prominent in the independent life of his country. He belongs to two centuries. He was born in the nineteenth century—November 4, 1873, near San Antonio de las Vueltas in the Province of Santa Clara—went to school and university and consecrated himself to the emancipation of his country. In the twentieth he has given unremitting service to the interests of the nation until finally he has been called to its highest office.

Carlos Mendieta began to distinguish himself from the time when he was still a medical student in the University of Habana. Cuba was yet a Spanish colony when he expressed his political affiliations in cheers for free Cuba and for Carlos Manuel de Céspedes, the father of his country. Thus he showed definitely that in him Cuban liberty had one more soldier for the crusade which was about to begin.

When the revolution of 1895 commenced, Carlos Mendieta joined it as soon as Maceo arrived in the Province of Pinar del Río. He left his studies and the comforts of his home—his father, Don Bartolomé Mendieta, was the owner of a sugar plantation—and went away to fight amid the scenes of greatest danger beside that genius of war named Antonio Maceo. He took part in engagements in almost all the Cuban provinces. In Santa Clara, at the orders of such famous liberators as José Miguel Gómez and José de Jesús Monteagudo, he executed deeds of prowess which bear witness to his courage, determination, and gifted leadership. When the war of independence was over he had the rank of colonel in the Army of Independence—a well-deserved reward for his ability and service.

In the period of reconstruction subsequent to the hard struggle for freedom he began to take an active part in public life, even while he

continued his studies in the University of Habana, where he received his degree in medicine and surgery. He was a member of the House of Representatives from the early days of the Republic until 1923. As the choice of the Liberal Party in 1916, he was the candidate for the Vice Presidency of the Republic. In 1923 and 1924, prior to the general elections, many persons, both within and without the party, ardently wished that Colonel Mendieta would become President. For some years, however, he simply devoted himself to directing his sugar plantation at Cunagua. It was justly observed that in time the Cuban people would seek Colonel Mendieta out at home in order to place him in the highest position in the nation's gift.

The eight years of President Machado's administration proved anew the high moral character of Colonel Mendieta. He early headed the opposition to the aberrations of that situation, maintained by force, which finally led him to armed strife, to prison, and to exile. In a friendly and cordial tone he warned Machado of the dangers of reelection to the presidency, but his admonitions were useless. The latter's fall found Colonel Mendieta in the United States engaged in the arduous task of seeking better days for Cuba.

The national turmoil after the fall of the former government in August 1933 brought about a liquidation of political values. Cuba passed through an extremely difficult period. In the midst of upheavals and adversity the public consciousness began to concentrate its hope of salvation on one name—that of Carlos Mendieta. The great mass of the Cuban people accurately took the measure of the extraordinary ability of this exemplary man, and on January 18, 1934, a committee of revolutionary factions under the chairmanship of Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling in Habana proclaimed him provisional president of the Republic.

Colonel Mendieta's merits are exceptional; his austere honor is recognized by all. In public and in private life he is a man of the finest integrity. His devotion to civic duties has become a true apostleship. The strength of his convictions constitutes a great moral force. His love of justice and liberty entitle him to the confidence and the assurance of collective victory which, both in Cuba and abroad, have been awakened and maintained by his presence as the leader of the great destinies of the nation of Céspedes and Martí.



MEXICAN WOMAN JOURNALISTS

By LOLA ANDERSON

THE Mexican woman of today is slowly but surely finding a place for herself in the business and professional life of her country. She has been more hesitant in leaving the seclusion of her home for public life than has her sister of the north, owing to the greater social restrictions and to the age-old prejudice inherited from Spain. These barriers, however, she is gradually breaking down, and there is no doubt but that these very barriers tend to limit the type of woman who ventures upon a career to the more capable and serious of purpose.

Among the various influences which have contributed to this new freedom of the Mexican woman, journalism has played a greater part than is generally recognized—a journalism which woman herself has had an important part in helping to develop. For woman has been an important factor in its progress in Mexico since the beginning. Not only has she enriched the national literature through her contributions to the press, but she has helped to improve its quality and has aided in all phases of its activity since the time when journalists were merely printers.

Mexico is known as the “cradle of American journalism” because the first printing press in the Western Hemisphere was brought to Mexico City in 1536 or thereabouts, and it might also be called the “cradle of women’s journalism”, for it produced the first women journalists in the Western Hemisphere as well as the first publications for women.

Although journalism for women had its beginning in Mexico—or New Spain as it was called then—soon after the independence from Spain was established, it went through a hundred years and more of struggle for existence, and it was not until within the present century that it has really existed in the modern sense of the term.

In 1913, to be exact, Mexico’s foremost woman journalist of today, Srta. Emilia Enríquez de Rivera, established her well-known magazine for women, *El Hogar*, thus marking a new era in women’s periodicals. Since that time numerous others have been founded, but many of them have died after a brief struggle against the odds. *El Hogar* (The Home), however, has become synonymous with women’s journalism in the Republic and compares favorably in content and make-up with the leading magazines of its type in the United States.

Señorita Enríquez de Rivera, left an orphan in early girlhood and finding it necessary to support herself, decided to found a magazine

for women. She was without means and lacked preparation for a career, except for having had a little journalistic experience through assisting her father, who was the editor of a small magazine, during his lifetime. Her friends advised against such a "bold" step, warning her of the difficulties and ultimate failure which surely awaited her if she went thus far in tempting Providence and in going against social dictates. Her ambition seemed doomed to failure until at last an old friend of her father's offered her the loan of a sum barely sufficient to start her magazine. She rented a small, dingy room, secured an old hand press, and set to work, alone, to write and publish the first modern magazine for women in Mexico. The first issue appeared September 13, 1913, and now, after 19 years of success, Señorita Enríquez de Rivera declares thirteen is her lucky number, and perhaps that has something to do with the fact that her splendid modern printing plant, housed in her own building, is listed under the number thirteen.

Señorita Enríquez de Rivera has seen her magazine grow in 19 years from a small sheet to a good-sized periodical of some 50 pages, requiring a staff of 60 to produce it. It contains practically every phase of material of feminine appeal attractively made up and well illustrated. Among the names of its contributors may be noted those of the best writers of Mexico, their articles covering a wide range of subject matter.

The ultimate success of Señorita Enríquez de Rivera following her difficult beginning has proved an inspiration for many other young women with journalistic ambitions, although among the women journalists of her country she continues to hold the distinction of being the leading one as well as the first. A woman of poise and of striking personality, she is known all over Mexico and in the United States and other countries. If a Mexican from any part of the Republic is asked concerning women journalists, he immediately mentions Señorita Enríquez de Rivera.

Among other women who have had marked success as editors or publishers may be mentioned Señorita Guadalupe Ramírez, granddaughter of Ignacio Ramírez, noted Mexican journalist and statesman. Señorita Ramírez, a teacher of home economics in a girls' school in Mexico City, with five other cultured and serious minded women, founded in 1929 a small magazine for women called *Luz* (Light). Señorita Ramírez, editor-in-chief of *Luz*, and formerly editor of *Sembrador*, a magazine which was published only for a short time, has done a notable work in promoting higher living standards in rural communities, in educating rural mothers in hygienic living, the proper care of children, the feeding of their families, and other matters pertaining to the making of better homes.

Esperanza Velásquez Bringas, the director of libraries in Mexico City and one of the country's most capable lawyers, is also one of the leading journalists of the country. Through her journalistic activity she has promoted the development of libraries and schools in the oil fields, achieving notable results, especially in the state of Tamaulipas, which since that time has had a much smaller percentage of illiteracy than before.

She has been a staff member of various periodicals in the capital, correspondent for several newspapers in the United States, and contributor to many magazines of the United States, Spain, and Mexico. She has written articles on eugenics, education, literature, politics, legal and agrarian problems, and many other subjects.

Señorita Velásquez Bringas was the first woman to win a court case in Mexico for a man accused of murder. In fact, this was the first penal case ever to have been tried by a woman in that country, and she won the unanimous vote of the jury.

Juana Manrique de Lara, a librarian in Mexico City, has written extensively for magazines in Mexico and for library journals of the United States. She writes both in English and in Spanish. In 1925 she founded a small magazine for children, *Pinocho*, of which she was both editor and publisher, and through which she brought to her youthful readers the cream of children's literature, translating the stories herself from the English. This was a real pioneering effort and did not prove successful financially, so that after a year Señorita Manrique de Lara was forced to abandon her project.

Catalina D'Erzell, regarded as one of Mexico's leading contemporary playwrights, is a leading journalist and dramatic critic. She has had a colorful career, having begun her work, as she claims, from necessity, and having had a long struggle to gain a place in the profession. She says she wrote for five years without compensation other than that of the satisfaction of seeing her writings in print before she was able to secure a permanent position on a newspaper staff. She is now dramatic editor of *Excelsior*, one of Mexico's two great dailies. An unhappy marriage, she says, was responsible for her taking up a career. Now, however, she believes that without being able to write, even though she were not compelled to support herself, her two children, and her parents, she would not be able to live. Her plays have been produced successfully from Los Angeles to Buenos Aires.

Virginia Huerta for more than twelve years has held an important position on the staff of *El Universal*, Mexico's other leading daily. She began as translator, then worked as cable editor, and later became country editor. She does little writing, other than occasional special articles or interviews with women. She is exceptional in that she

does not believe a journalistic career is desirable for a woman because of the hard work involved.

María Ríos Cárdenas, editor of the woman's page of *El Nacional Revolucionario*, is an enthusiastic feminist. Through her daily editorials she has attempted to encourage the economic and political independence of women and their education for self-support. She published for a time a feminist magazine *La Mujer* (Woman), but owing to its nature it was unpopular and consequently short-lived. Señorita Ríos Cárdenas believes strongly in journalism as a career for women because, she says, "Journalism needs what women can give it."

María Luisa Ross, journalist, educator, and lecturer of international note, has done considerable writing for various periodicals in the capital and published several books. She is a former member of the staff of *El Universal*, and she has been for some time a professor in the normal school in Mexico City, recognized as an authority on Mexican literature. Journalism, she says, is her first and best love, and she expects to make it her ultimate life work.

These are merely a few of the intelligent, cultured women who are to be found in the profession of journalism in Mexico today. Many others could be named. Although these women may all be considered pioneers in their field, there have been women journalists in Mexico almost continuously for more than three hundred years, ever since the first woman printer-journalist, widow of one Pedro Ocharte and daughter of Juan Pablos, first printer of New Spain, took over the establishment of her husband after his death. This was in 1594.

Historians name a sufficiently large number of women printer-journalists to lead us to suppose that they were fairly important in their field. The most important of them all, apparently, the widow of Bernardo Calderón, was one of the leading journalists of her time. Some of the earliest journalistic publications came from her establishment, first the *hojas volantes* (flying sheets) small news sheets which confined their contents to one topic each and derived their news chiefly from foreign countries. More of these came from the press of the widow of Bernardo Calderón than from any other. Her name first appeared on a printed sheet dated February 17, 1641, and she continued to operate the printing establishment until her death in 1684. Several of the women descendants of Bernardo Calderón were also printer-journalists.

Some of the earliest periodicals came from the press of María Fernández de Jáuregui, who seems to have been an important printer-journalist. Through the death of José Fernández de Jáuregui, in 1800, his press passed to her. It is not known for certain whether she was his wife or his sister. Her establishment produced a large volume of printing.

Several women were concerned with the publication of the first real periodical published in New Spain. It was called *Gazeta de México y Noticias de Nueva España* (*Gazette of Mexico and News of New Spain*), and the first issue appeared in 1722.

Women began contributing their writings to periodicals at an early date. Most of the early women writers were nuns and their chief contributions to the press were chiefly poetry and essays, the latter on religious and educational subjects. The most important of these was Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz, who still holds the distinction of being one of Mexico's greatest poets and its first feminist, although she lived from 1651 to 1695.

During the revolutionary period women had little part in the development of journalism because the press was at that time almost purely political and women had no share in politics.

From 1822, the beginning of Iturbide's reign, until the close of the century, there was a notable growth of literary periodicals, many of which published contributions by women. Beginning about 1840, the press gained special distinction as a medium for the publication of poems and other forms of literary expression, and the best works of literature produced during that time were published in periodicals rather than in volumes, since it was very difficult to get books issued.

The first periodical to make a definite attempt to appeal to women readers was *El Águila Mexicana* (The Mexican Eagle) a daily newspaper which was published for a few months in 1823, while the first to be devoted exclusively to women's interest was the *Semanario de las Señoritas Mexicanas* (*Weekly of Mexican Young Ladies*), founded in 1841 and published for about two years.

During the next half century, several magazines for women made their appearance, one or two directed by women, but all were short-lived.

The so-called modern period in Mexican journalism began in 1896 when Rafael Reyes Spíndola founded the daily newspaper *El Imparcial*, relegating the editorial to a place of secondary importance and giving the news precedence, and placing the price of his daily within reach of the masses. From that time it was less than two decades until Señorita Enríquez de Rivera introduced the modern woman's magazine, thus ushering in a new era in woman's journalism and paving the way for others in the profession.

While Mexican women have been slower to adopt professions than have the women of the United States, they seem on the whole to take their careers more seriously. In addition to the mere pursuing of a career, each Mexican woman journalist seems to have some definite aim, some goal which she uses her journalistic talent to accomplish. This may be the betterment of living conditions, of schools, or of libraries, the encouragement of economic independence of women, or

feminism, if you will, but each woman will tell you with grave concern of the ideals she holds for her country and especially for its women and children.

Women employed on newspaper or magazine staffs receive the same compensation as do men in like positions. Editors express surprise when asked if such is the case. They will explain, if questioned further, that since women employees do as good, usually better, work than men, they should of course receive equal compensation.

Women have not yet taken to advertising, no doubt because it has not been developed to the point at which it may attract them.

Mexican women journalists have not had formal training in schools of journalism. Until 1932 there was no such instruction offered in the country and none had gone abroad for it. Early in 1933 the first school of journalism in the Republic was founded in Mexico in connection with the Universidad Renovadora Pragmática; it had an enrollment of some 20 students, two of whom were women. The classes, taught by prominent newspapermen of the capital, were held in the evenings.

Although among the higher social class there still exists a prejudice against women working outside the home, the prejudice seems to exist more among the women themselves than among the men. Men object, of course, to the women of their own family working. That is a matter of personal pride, but they are not so much prejudiced against the idea in general. It is difficult for a woman to secure a job, but once she gets it she is likely to keep it since she must have proved her ability before she is offered it. At any rate, it seems that the chief difficulty is encountered at the beginning.



EXHIBIT OF GUATEMALAN TEXTILES IN WASHINGTON

THANKS to the initiative of the Carnegie Institution of Washington and the Center of Inter-American Studies of the George Washington University, the residents of Washington had the opportunity in March of seeing at the National Museum the Guatemalan textiles described so delightfully in the December 1933 issue of the *BULLETIN* by Lilly de Jongh Osborne, who gathered this remarkable collection. Here were the enchanting beasts and birds, the beautiful geometrical designs in rich colors, the delicate bridal *huipil* lacy as a white peacock's tail, and many other pieces rich in historical or ethnographical significance. The collection had previously been shown at the University Museum, Philadelphia.

A large number of invited guests, representing the diplomatic, artistic, scientific, and social circles of Washington, were present at the formal opening of the exhibition on March 15. They passed through the exhibition halls to the auditorium of the museum, where Dr. Cloyd Heck Marvin, president of the George Washington University, extended the welcome of that institution. Dr. A. Curtis Wilgus, director of the Center of Inter-American Studies, after expressing his thanks for the privilege of bringing Mrs. Osborne's collection to Washington, introduced His Excellency the Minister of Guatemala, Dr. Adrián Recinos, who spoke as follows:

I am most grateful to the Carnegie Institution of Washington and the Center of Inter-American Studies of the George Washington University for their interest in bringing to the National Museum the Osborne collection of Guatemalan textiles. Thanks to the endeavor of both learned institutions the art and ingenuity of the natives of my country are presented here for your examination in a beautiful display of color and variety.

Mrs. Lilly de Jongh Osborne, a distinguished lady—and long a resident of Guatemala—spent 20 years gathering the textiles which form her valuable collection, as she tells us in the interesting story published by the Pan American Union. Yet this collection, rich as it is, shows only a small part of the costumes, veils, blankets, skirts, and gracefully embroidered *huipiles* or blouses which every Indian girl makes for her personal wear. You can appreciate the difficulty in getting and assembling a specimen of every garment, when you realize that there are still living in Guatemala more than twenty of the original Indian tribes of the Maya-Quiché races who occupied the highlands before the arrival of the Spanish conquerors, and that, like the clans of Scotland, each of them has its own distinctive tribal color scheme and style of clothing.

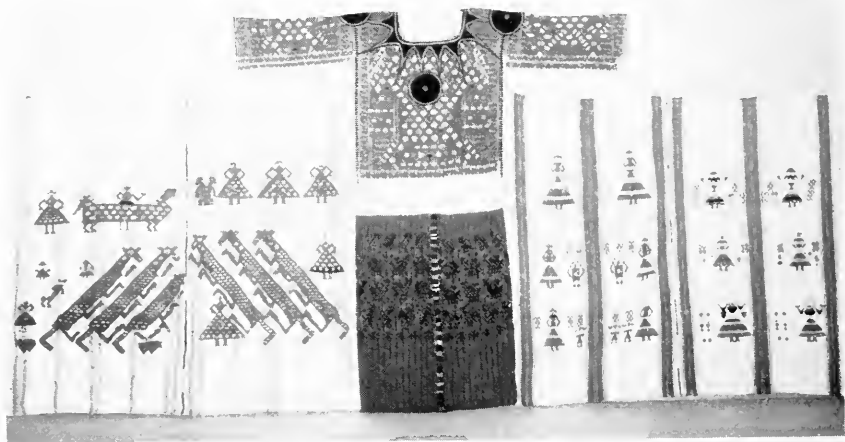
The Guatemalan Indians form an integral part of the country's active life. They are the farm laborers and, on their tracts of land in the highlands, they cultivate corn and wheat for their own account. They are excellent shepherds

and artisans, whose skill and artistic taste are clearly demonstrated in the textiles of this exhibit. And so they live in constant association with the white population. They make good soldiers and many distinguish themselves for intelligence in the schools. They are successful in business, as well as in the fine arts, and they also go in for the learned professions.

It would be impossible fully to comprehend the life of a country like Guatemala, where the white and Indian races dwell harmoniously together, without taking into account the important contribution to the national economy made by this group of inhabitants who represent over 50 percent of the total population.

The beautiful natural scenery of Guatemala forms an admirable setting for the picturesque features of Indian life. These give a touch of color to the popular fiestas held in Indian villages, and they gladden the roads and mountain paths. Foreign travelers who visit the country and write of their impressions always describe with sympathetic interest these features of native life. Allow me to quote here the words of L. E. Elliott in her book *Central America*: "A Guatemalan girl, young and slender, trotting down the mountainside, her bare bronze arms swinging in rhythm, clad in her short skirt and gay *huipil*, carrying a basket on her head covered with a rich embroidered cloth, presents one of the most charming pictures of native life to be seen in the three Americas. For purity of type, for distinction and bright adornment, one would have to go to Java to find the equal of the Maya-Quiché girl."

But I must not keep you longer from visiting the exhibit. I hope you may like the designs, colors, and arrangement of these textiles from Guatemala and that you will concur with me in admiring the talent and craftsmanship of the American Indian, of whom the native races of my country are only a small part.



A GROUP OF TEXTILES IN THE OSBORNE COLLECTION.

In the center is a woman's *huipil*, and a *tzute*, a cloth often used for carrying tortillas. At each side is a napkin.

RAISING OSTRICHES IN ARGENTINA

MOST persons living in the United States are familiar through pictures or personal visits with the ostrich farms in California, but doubtless comparatively few are aware that many ostriches are also raised on the far-stretching plains of Argentina. Some of the birds are African ostriches, the same as those grown in the United States; they are easily acclimated in various sections of the country. But others, although they look and act like ostriches, have similar feathers and are almost always called ostriches in Spanish, are really birds of another family native to the country where they live. Their scientific name is *Rhea americana*, and W. H. Hudson called them the "noblest avian type of the great bird-continent." The head of this American ostrich, called the *ñandú*, the *chueké* or *avestruz* in Spanish, is blackish, its neck is whitish shading into black on the lower part of the neck and shoulders, and the rest of the back is a slate gray. Most of the feathers underneath are whitish, with two crescent-shaped markings, one on either side of the upper breast. A number of years ago, however, some raisers secured an albino variety, whose feathers are highly esteemed. The length of the bird is somewhat over four feet; an adult stands 30 to 40 inches high, the male being always larger and darker. Dr. George Gaylord Simpson, of the American Museum of Natural History, in writing of this ostrich says: "The leg motion is especially strange in a biped, because what appears to be the knee (although actually corresponding rather with the ankle) bends in the opposite direction to our own knees and gives the observer an uncomfortable feeling that anatomy is playing weird tricks. The tracks are remarkably similar to those of some dinosaurs, preserved in rocks many millions of years old." The reason that these tracks resemble those of the dinosaurs is that the Argentine ostrich has three toes; the African ostrich has two. There are also other anatomical differences.

The Argentine ostriches, as Hudson and many other observers have said, are not afraid of men unless they are persecuted and often become as familiar and tame as other domesticated animals. Young birds taken from the parent will follow their owner about like a dog, and at the zoo in Buenos Aires adults wander placidly through the gardens. The ostriches live in flocks which vary from 3 or 4 to 20 or 30. The mating season is in August and September, when the old cockbird drives off the young males in the flock. The females all deposit their

eggs in a common nest, which is, however, simply a depression in the ground. There may be from 30 to 60 or even more eggs in a single nest. Each egg is equal in volume to a dozen hen's eggs; its color is golden yellow which gradually fades to white. "Having laid", says Dr. Simpson, "the female has made her whole contribution to family life, and she then wanders off and forgets the affair. The male



Courtesy of the New York Zoological Society.

A MALE RHEA, OR ARGENTINE OSTRICH.

In general appearance the South American variety closely resembles the more familiar African ostrich. An adult bird stands from 30 to 40 inches in height, the male, somewhat larger than the hen, having longer and finer feathers.

does all the work, making the nest, sitting on the eggs, and bringing up the young, an unfortunate social system to which mankind has not yet fallen." Nor is this the work of a week, for the incubation period alone lasts 45 days.

There is also a smaller species of rhea found only in Patagonia, which is called *Avestruz petizo* or *Ñandú overo*. A specimen of this



SOUTH AMERICAN OSTRICH EGGS.

The females of each flock lay their eggs in a common nest—merely a depression in the ground—which may contain from thirty to sixty or more eggs, on which the male fowl sits for the incubation period of 45 days.

species was first secured by Darwin, when he visited Patagonia a century ago. It therefore bears the name of *Rhea Darwini*.

Fifty years ago the Argentine ostrich lived in absolute liberty. Then it was often hunted by means of *boleadoras*, which consist of two or three weights united by leather thongs. One weight is held in the hand and the other whirled rapidly above the head; then the whole weapon is loosed at the prey which, if hit, becomes entangled in the cords. Both the flesh and eggs of the bird are edible. The custom of hunting ostriches, however, has disappeared except in very isolated regions, such as Patagonia.

The domestication of the Argentine ostrich was begun in 1855, when its exportation alive to Europe was also commenced. It was between 1905 and 1910, however, that the raising of these birds was seriously undertaken on a scientific basis. Papers on the subject were written and published by both scientific bodies and agricultural reviews. Ostrich raising became a regular subject in agricultural schools and the National Government, through the Department of Agriculture, did its utmost to spread information on the proper way



From Vidal's "Picturesque Illustrations of Buenos Aires and Montevideo", 1820.

HUNTING OSTRICHES;

This print depicts the old custom of hunting the wild birds with *boleadoras*.

of raising and utilizing these useful creatures. This work has borne fruit, and today ostriches are grown on many stock farms as a source of feathers, eggs, meat, and pepsin. It has proved best not to confine the birds too closely, in order to prevent disease; therefore they are allowed to wander freely, and live on tender grass, insects, small rodents, and grain. They are always hungry and feed constantly through the day. Since the Argentine estancias are still very large—often many square miles in extent—as a rule one sees these birds in groups of 10 or 15 running in the same fields as stock. Sometimes there are from 80 to 100 ostriches to a *cuadro*, which varies between 225 and 700 acres; elsewhere an acre is allowed to each one. The traveller crossing the country on a train, however, naturally receives the impression that they are wild, for the fences are often far distant. Much care is given to the hatching and feeding of the chicks, so as to secure greater production. The young birds are often seen among barnyard poultry. If birds under two years of age are fed with bran, potatoes, bread, barley, and corn, their flesh acquires a delicate flavor similar to that of turkey.

There are some estancias which have 4,000 or 5,000 ostriches and follow the most advanced methods in their care, especially in the annual harvest of feathers.

The latest figures for the export of ostrich feathers from Argentina are as follows:

	1930	1931	1932	1930	1931	1932
	<i>Kilos</i> ¹	<i>Kilos</i>	<i>Kilos</i>	<i>Pesos</i> ²	<i>Pesos</i>	<i>Pesos</i>
Brazil.....	908	140		1,037	200	
Chile.....	5,104	3,504	811	12,278	8,193	2,886
France.....	493	1,822	265	690	2,928	350
Spain.....	150	922	693	450	1,957	1,333
United States.....	926	753	892	960	1,540	1,699
Uruguay.....	137	524	1,110	179	879	750
Totals.....	7,718	7,665	3,771	15,594	15,697	7,018

¹ One kilo equals 2.2 lbs.

² The average exchange rate of the Argentine gold peso was as follows: 1930, \$0.8350; 1931, \$0.6674; 1932, \$0.5844.

The province of Buenos Aires is the principal center for raising Argentine ostriches, although they are also grown in Entre Ríos, Córdoba, Santa Fé, Corrientes, Mendoza, and Santiago del Estero, and in some territories. The Argentine ostrich, therefore, can no longer be considered a wild bird, except in the most remote parts of the country, and its domestication has brought good profits to Argentine farmers. All the feathers now exported may be said to come from domesticated birds.



Courtesy of the Argentine Embassy in Washington.

ANNUAL HARVEST OF OSTRICH FEATHERS.

Since the domestication of the Argentine ostrich, the raising and care of the birds have been placed on a scientific basis.

THE DEDICATION OF A MONUMENT TO RUBÉN DARÍO

ON September 24, 1933, the President of Nicaragua, Dr. Juan B. Sacasa, unveiled a magnificent marble monument in Managua, the capital, to the memory of Rubén Darío. This foremost son of that Central American Republic was the greatest Hispanic poet of his day, and a rejuvenating force in Spanish letters to the glory of both America and Spain. The statue was erected by popular subscription, and the people of Darío's native land thereby expressed a sentiment which is not limited to a single country, but is deeply shared by all Spanish-speaking nations of the world, who find in him one of the greatest figures of modern times in the realm of poetry.

All lovers of literature and especially of poetry are acquainted with the main outlines of Darío's life. He was born in Metapa, today known, in his honor, as Ciudad Darío. He passed part of his boyhood in the neighboring Republic of Honduras; after his return to Nicaragua while little more than a lad, he laid the foundations of his literary career by taking advantage of the opportunities of his position in the National Library of Managua. Even then he was no novice in the art of self-support, for he had been employed on a newspaper staff and had later taught grammar in a secondary school. The story runs that in the library he read everything that came to hand, especially all the prologues to that monumental nineteenth century collection of Spanish literature, the *Biblioteca de Autores Españoles*, and the principal Spanish classics.

In 1886, when barely 19 years old, Darío began his restless life of travel by going to Chile, where he remained about three years and where he conceived some of his finest literary work. The following year he received a prize awarded in a literary competition for his beautiful *Canto Épico a las Glorias de Chile*; in another category of the same contest, he received honorable mention for verse written in imitation of Bécquer. While in Chile he contributed to some of the principal newspapers of Santiago and Valparaíso, and in 1888 published *Azul*, the book which made his name known throughout the Spanish-speaking world. "*Azul*", the Chilean writer Raúl Silva Castro has said, "is a complete book, inspired by the dreams which people the mind of a strongly imaginative man. *Azul* . . . is the first important book by Rubén Darío. It did not inaugurate the literary renaissance heralded by *Prosas profanas*, but it did include in its pages not a few of the argumentative points, later the subject of artistic controversy."

While in Chile, Darío also published many stories, tales, and poems, which had a great influence on the literary circles of that country.

After leaving Chile, Darío returned to Nicaragua, traveling through Central America. He remained there only a short while, and after representing his country at the celebration in Spain of the fourth centenary of the discovery of America, he went to Argentina in 1893 where, through the kindness of ex-President Rafael Núñez, the Colombian Government appointed him consul general in Buenos Aires. It was in the great metropolis of South America that his personality took definitive shape, and his creative force deepened and became complete-



UNVEILING CEREMONY OF DARÍO MONUMENT.

President Sacasa and Señor Don Manuel Villavicencio, Mayor of the National District, unveiled the monument after 14 young women, representing Nicaragua and the 13 Departments of the Republic, had released its coverings.

ly developed. There he began the movement which gave a new direction to poetry in Spain and other Spanish-speaking countries.

Darío wrote with a magic pen. Under his skillful touch Spanish meter proved to have greater flexibility, to be capable of hitherto unimagined variations, apparently infinite in number. Some of his seemingly alien innovations in verse forms had existed in early Spanish poetry, and all, no matter how strange the impression conveyed at first, have now become an integral part of Spanish metrics. That he was influenced by foreign poets—and by such widely different ones as Walt Whitman and Verlaine—is undeniable, but his powers of assimilation were such that the result was after all consonant with the Spanish tradition. It is also true that knowledge and

appreciation of the recent tendencies in French poetry, such as Parnassianism and symbolism, were spread among Spanish-speaking peoples largely by his works.

Soon after his arrival in Buenos Aires he formed his lifelong connection with the newspaper *La Nación* and its columns were the tribune from which he spoke to the whole continent. In an editorial at the time of the dedication of the monument in Nicaragua, *La Nación* said:

"Rubén Darío, while a cosmopolitan from the nature of his art, is also an important Argentine poet, not only in the purely lyrical aspects of his work, but in the civic ones as well. It is enough to recall his hymn on our Centenary of Independence—the longest of all his poems—his two odes to Mitre, his descriptive verse, his articles about Buenos Aires, to realize to what extent he was our intellectual compatriot and how greatly the years spent with us influenced his temperament. He was a member of the editorial staff of *La Nación* for many years, and its literary correspondent in Paris for most of his life thereafter. In this manner he realized his desire to live among scenes which fascinated him and which were constantly idealized in his inspired prose and abundant verse. Few contemporary Spanish-speaking poets reflect universal emotions with greater variety. In spite of this, he was essentially an American poet, an Iberian poet, and a poet who was always thinking, with ardent pleasure or acute nostalgia, of the scenes of his native land, which he evoked in songs of melancholy sweetness or in intimate pages describing his boyhood days. And today Rubén Darío has one and the same meaning for Spanish-American nations and for the mother country, which exalted him as the supreme expression of her own tradition and culture."

After 5 years in Buenos Aires, Darío went to Paris, which he made his headquarters during such times as he was not traveling or holding diplomatic posts in Europe or America. As a delegate from Nicaragua he attended the Third International Conference of American States in Rio de Janeiro in 1906, and afterwards revisited South America, to which he paid his last visit in 1912. In the meantime he was Minister of Nicaragua in Spain.

Failing health, which even the Golden Isle of Majorca could not alleviate, began to pursue Darío after his last trip to South America. A lecture tour in the United States in 1914 was cut short by an attack of pneumonia; once recovered, the poet left for Guatemala, and feeling that death was near, continued to his native land, where he died in León on February 6, 1916.

The monument recently erected to his memory in the Parque Darío in Managua is, therefore, significant of the bard's immortality in the hearts of his fellow countrymen. The marble figure of the poet stands, clad in classic robes, listening to the divine harmony of a

winged figure hovering behind him. On three faces of the pedestal of the statue are reliefs representing some of Darío's finest poems. On one, St. Francis is seen holding the paw of the wolf of Gubbio, as described in *Los Motivos del Lobo*. The powerful imagery of the *Marcha Triunfal* appears in the next, where warriors emerge from a triumphal arch, on one side of which kneels an old man pointing out the heroes to his grandson, while on the other, women come forward to crown the victors. The third relief embodies the theme of *Los Centauros*, the "vibrating troop of strength and harmony" of which the poet sang. The sculptor has represented the figure of a centaur



MONUMENT TO RUBÉN DARÍO IN MANAGUA.

This imposing tribute in memory of the Nicaraguan bard, one of the greatest modern writers of Spanish poetry, was erected by popular subscription.

galloping headlong, with a fainting nymph on his back. Under each carving the section of the poem illustrated has been transcribed in golden letters. On the front of the pedestal is the bronze inscription, *Nicaragua a su Rubén Darío*, below which are the lines from *Canto de Esperanza* beginning:

Oh, Señor Jesucristo, ¿por qué tardas, qué esperas
para tender tu mano de luz sobre las fieras
y hacer brillar al sol tus divinas banderas?

The monument stands in a shallow basin. At the poet's feet the three muses of poetry float in a garlanded vessel over the waters; they are attended by cupids and led by a figure bearing a laurel wreath.

Two swans, especially appropriate for the poet of the *Cantos de Vida y Esperanza*, swim toward him, watching their reflections in the still waters.

The monument, whose beauty is enhanced by the waters of Lake Managua which serve as its background, was designed by Atilio Favilli, an Italian artist resident in Nicaragua, and sculptured by another Italian, Master Bonanno. It is symbolic of the "Land of Lakes", the name which Darío made popular for the Republic.

The principal speakers at the dedication ceremony were Dr. Manuel Maldonado, a noted poet and member of the Nicaraguan Academy of Letters, which is affiliated with that of Spain; Dr. Rodolfo Espinosa, Vice President of the Republic; and Dr. Luis Manuel de Bayle, an old friend and companion of Darío, who was the official representative of the Academy of Letters. In his reminiscences of Darío, Dr. de Bayle said:

"Fate so willed that we should be thrown together at the chief periods of his life: at the dawn of childhood; at school, under the wise and noble Ibarra; during Darío's first visit to Spain; in his victorious return to this beloved land; in his last triumphs in Spain and North America; and during his last days, his illness, and his death.

"And all that culminates today in this solemn hour, when through the goodness of God I am able to join with you before this glorious monument—glorious, because it is a merited tribute to his greatness, glorious too because of all the wreaths placed on the thinker's brow, this is the finest diadem, since it is the homage of his country, which in honoring him honors itself.

"And there is a remarkable, I might say a providential coincidence, which it has been my good fortune to observe: that great patriot, the notable President of Nicaragua, Dr. Roberto Sacasa, esteeming and understanding the great ability of Darío as a young man, sent him on a diplomatic mission to Spain, at that time the Areopagus of such great writers as Castelar, Campoamor, Menéndez y Pelayo, Núñez de Arce, Valera, and others, who from then on understood and esteemed his extraordinary personality. And today the honor and satisfaction of unveiling this statue and dedicating this monument belong to his worthy son, our splendid President, Dr. Juan Bautista Sacasa. . . .

"Darío hungered after the ideal and thirsted for beauty, and his exquisite and ingenuous soul was '*sentimental, sensible, and sensitivo*'. . . . He scorned the mediocre but pardoned stupidity and hate. With the stones cast at him he could, as he said, have constructed 'a breakwater which would hold back for a little while the inevitable onslaught of oblivion'. Nevertheless, he repaid unmerited and sometimes scurrilous attacks with a flood of harmony from his lyre. . . .

"For those of us who were his friends and knew him intimately, he had all the physical and psychological traits peculiar to genius. . . .

"I shall not enter into a discussion of his admirable technique. His transcendental work may be summed up in two words, reform and renascence. More important than the works of Boscán and Garcilaso for Spanish literature and those of Verlaine for French poetry, his were instrumental in widening horizons; he found the vital and intimate correlation between thought and word; he discarded both the verbal and the mental cliché 'which perpetuate stiffness and immobility'; he loosened the rhythm of their traditional bonds; and he brought the sun of beauty and of liberty into the hitherto hermetically sealed stronghold of art.

"His incredibly musical ear was responsible for the delicate shading of his rhythm, and explains how he accomplished the innovations embodied in his remarkable theory of the *ideal melody*. . . .

"In conclusion, gentlemen, permit me to reiterate my thesis: He united Castilian thought and feeling. He has been the ideal and beneficial link between twenty nations, the bond of union for millions of men who speak the same language, who feel with the same soul, whose hearts beat as one, who draw inspiration from the same artistic, patriotic, racial, and juridical ideals, 'who still pray to Christ and still speak Spanish.'

"Rubén Darío, socially shy, yet endowed with the audacity of genius, who constructively and triumphantly revolutionized literature and wielded the scepter of Spanish poetry, thus reconquered Spain, and built in the twentieth century, in the realm of the spirit, another farflung empire like that of Charles V, eternally illumined by a never-setting sun. Only in this case the emperor is lord of souls; he is an American, an Indo-Spaniard with indigenous rebelliousness and cosmopolitan ideals, whose cradle was humble Nicaragua, and whose glorious tomb is not in the Escorial of Spain, but here in the Cathedral of León."

Just before the monument was unveiled, an airplane from Guatemala, sent by President Ubico in tribute to the memory of the poet, scattered flowers over the monument and the assembled gathering. As His Excellency President Sacasa of Nicaragua mounted the rostrum for the official dedication, 14 maidens representing the Republic and the 13 departments into which it is divided, unfastened the ribbons holding the veil and the national band struck up the triumphal march, composed for the occasion by Prof. Luis A. Delgadillo. Moving pictures of the ceremonies were taken, and the addresses broadcast by station YNLF, the first time that the radio was used for a public ceremony in Nicaragua.

CHILE REVAMPS THE NITRATE INDUSTRY

By JOSÉ TERCERO
of the Pan American Union Staff

ON January 8, 1934, President Alessandri of Chile affixed his signature to Law No. 5350 of the Chilean Congress, which establishes as a State monopoly the exportation of and commerce in nitrate and iodine, and thereby opened a new chapter in the history of the nitrate industry.

From the very beginnings of this industry, a little over a century ago, down to our times, the history of Chilean nitrate reads like an amazing saga woven around a very real, human nucleus. As fertilizer, Chilean nitrate has increased the yield of lands throughout the world, contributing to the sustenance of the human family for many decades. As a source for the extraction of divers important chemicals, it has played a part in the advancement of science and industry. As basic material for the manufacture of explosives it has been instrumental in blasting obstacles in the way of human progress, and has also played a tragic role on battlefields.

On the other hand, its ups and downs as an important commodity in the marts of the world have been reflected in the daily life of the Chilean people; for nitrate has been part of the framework of Chile's economic structure for almost three quarters of a century.

With a practically inexhaustible supply of nitrate at its disposal and assured of an almost complete natural monopoly, Chile enjoyed long periods of prosperity during which large revenues from export taxes accrued to her national treasury, facilitating the general development of the country as a whole. A well-balanced, rotating current of internal commerce was started when the nitrate producing provinces of the north, barren and lifeless, became profitable markets for the fertile agricultural provinces of the south. Railroads were laid, ports were opened, plants, towns, and cities rose and spread over the desolate wastes of the *pampa*, and with the white crystals of the fertilizer shipped abroad went handsome profits to the foreign investors whose capital came gradually to dominate the industry.

For a considerable period there was clear sailing ahead for Chilean nitrates, which were easy winners over competitive fertilizers. In 1910, for example, of the total world production of nitrogenous fertilizers, 64.3 percent represented the share of nitrate, as against 34.3 percent of various byproduct fertilizers and only 1.4 percent of synthetic nitrogen. From that year on there has been a steady in-

crease in the output of the synthetic products and a corresponding downward plunge in nitrate salts. The latest available figures, for the period 1932-33, give as percentages of world production: nitrate, 4.4 percent; byproducts, 12.6 percent; synthetic nitrogen, 83 percent.¹

The phenomenal increase in the production of synthetic nitrogen began during the World War. At the time, the Chilean producers confidently expected that with the cessation of hostilities the synthetic producers would gradually diminish their output and that nitrate would regain its predominant position in the world markets. Their optimistic reckonings did not materialize, and theirs has been a losing fight against their competitors, with adverse repercussions on the national economy of Chile.

Various attempts have been made to find suitable ways and means to protect the Chilean nitrate industry, including the negotiation of international agreements with the producers of synthetic fertilizers to check ruinous overproduction, and the reorganization of the industry in Chile along more scientific, "rational" lines in an endeavor to cut down the cost of production. Finally, the views of the advocates of a thorough overhauling of the industry prevailed, and in July 1930 the Government of Chile authorized the creation of a gigantic corporation which was to concentrate virtually all phases of the industry in a single unit.²

Chartered for a period of 60 years, with a capitalization of 3 billions of Chilean pesos, and with the Government of Chile as a direct partner in the enterprise, holding 50 percent of the stock, the *Compañía de Salitre de Chile*, better known as the "Cosach", started its ill-fated venture, ending in its liquidation by decree of January 2, 1933.

In 1930, shortly after the Cosach was organized, there were in operation 32 plants with 52,000 workers.³ By June 1931 the corresponding figures were 6 plants and 17,000 workers.⁴ At the end of the nitrate year 1932-33 the number of workers fell to 8,700.⁵

The resulting unemployment caused a migration of over 120,000 people to the provinces of the South.⁶ Commenting on this subject, a

¹ "Sinopsis Geográfico-Estadístico de la República de Chile", Dirección General de Estadística, Santiago, 1933. p. 202.

² For a detailed description of the industry up to the organization of the *Cosach*, see "The Reorganization of the Chilean Nitrate Industry," by Guillermo A. Suro. BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, May 1931.

³ Cited in a report submitted to the Minister of Finance on November 5, 1931. For English translation see "Hearings on Sale of Foreign Bonds or Securities in the United States." U.S. Senate, Committee on Finance. Part 4, p. 2052.

⁴ Julio Pérez Canto, "Industria Salitrera y la Intervención del Estado." Revista Universitaria, Santiago, Chile. Octubre-noviembre 1933, p. 590.

⁵ "Sinopsis Geográfico-Estadístico de la República de Chile", p. 199.

⁶ Report of the Minister of Finance. See "Hearings" cited, p. 2053.



Courtesy of the Anglo-Chilean Consolidated Nitrate Corporation.

LOADING ORE AT THE NITRATE FIELD.

The first step in extracting the nitrate is the blasting of the *caliche*, the nitrate-bearing layer about 4 feet below the earth's surface. The ore is sorted and transported by car, truck, or mule to the refinery.



A NITRATE OFICINA, OR REFINING PLANT.

A part of one of the larger *oficinas* where the *caliche* is first crushed and then boiled in the process of crystallizing the nitrate.

prominent Chilean official stated before the national Congress:⁷ "The great factories which involve enormous capital and excessive mechanization destined to replace workmen, are a profound evil that afflicts humanity today. The cost of production is seldom lowered; sometimes it is raised; only its nature is changed. Instead of wages and salaries, the high cost represents the interest of the heavy burden of the huge capital invested; for this reason governments ought never to settle great industrial problems solely from the point of view of their commercial aspect. Generally speaking, the decisions of concerns of this nature are dictated by considerations of their material advantages and inspired by their exclusive convenience, not infrequently in conflict with real national interests."

To maintain the carrying charges of its huge capitalization, the Cosach would have needed to sell between 2,500,000 and 3,000,000 tons a year.⁸ The world consumption of nitrate in 1930-31 was only 1,528,700 tons, and this total decreased to 892,100 tons in 1931-32, and to 824,900 in 1932-33.⁹

Up to the time of the organization of the Cosach, the Chilean treasury had shared in the nitrate and iodine industry in the form of an export tax, which was as follows from 1906 on:

Revenue derived by the Government from the nitrate industry 1906-29^a

Year	Tax collected on nitrate and iodine	Ordinary Government receipts	Percentage of the Nation's ordinary revenue derived from the nitrate industry	Year	Tax collected on nitrate and iodine	Ordinary Government receipts	Percentage of the Nation's ordinary revenue derived from the nitrate industry
1906.....	180,492,152	348,780,629	51.75	1918.....	335,236,307	738,251,379	45.40
1907.....	168,417,128	379,232,211	44.41	1919.....	91,464,887	379,097,675	24.12
1908.....	207,362,980	362,542,341	57.19	1920.....	316,855,337	638,167,530	49.65
1909.....	215,628,501	377,174,952	57.16	1921.....	126,592,899	274,441,532	46.12
1910.....	241,177,597	437,346,885	55.14	1922.....	117,567,806	375,821,946	31.28
1911.....	250,557,314	465,289,599	53.84	1923.....	229,234,027	561,840,153	40.78
1912.....	255,122,406	490,201,542	52.04	1924.....	238,863,773	602,632,395	39.63
1913.....	272,050,723	515,294,583	52.81	1925.....	258,705,488	695,693,709	37.18
1914.....	197,082,821	404,973,558	48.66	1926.....	175,185,563	755,401,152	23.19
1915.....	204,597,687	373,629,318	54.81	1927.....	235,248,408	909,129,764	25.87
1916.....	305,862,261	508,344,063	60.16	1928.....	290,025,279	1,021,041,399	28.44
1917.....	322,982,821	639,212,228	50.52	1929.....	299,782,473	1,267,556,419	23.65

^a From table of revenues published by the "Boletín Oficial de la Bolsa de Corredores de Valparaíso", Valparaíso, July 17, 1930. The nitrate export tax netted the Government 173,568,354 pesos in 1930. During 1931, 1932, and the first ten months of 1933 the fixed quotas paid by the Cosach amounted to 160,052,587 pesos, 32,000,000 pesos and 9,188,900 pesos, respectively.

According to the Cosach plan, the Chilean treasury would be greatly benefited by becoming partner in the concern and sharing in its profits on a 50-50 basis. The export tax was eliminated, and in addition nitrate reserve lands representing 150,000,000 tons of nitrate were

⁷ Don Gustavo Ross, Minister of Finance. Quoted in "South Pacific Mail", Valparaíso, January 19, 1933, p. 13.

⁸ "Un País al Garete." Carlos Keller R. Santiago, 1932, p. 119.

⁹ "Sinopsis Geográfico-Estadístico de la República de Chile", p. 199.

transferred to the company, which could choose for exploitation any of the reserve lands for a period of 60 years.¹⁰ It was subsequently found that from this substantial contribution to the company, the Government would receive as its share of the profits 27,000,000 pesos a year at best, and this only if an unusual set of circumstances should coexist as to price per ton of nitrate which would allow a total gross profit of 252,000,000 pesos on an assumed yearly sale of 2,000,000 tons.¹¹



Courtesy of the International Telephone and Telegraph Corporation.

REMOVAL OF THE FINISHED NITRATE FROM SETTLING TANKS.

Many plants are reverting to the Shanks process, first introduced in 1878, partly to give employment to larger numbers of workmen, since more of the work in such plants is done by man-power than in the refineries using the Guggenheim process.

The dissolution of the Cosach became imperative and, as was stated before, took place by virtue of decree no. 1, of January 2, 1933. The Government found sufficient cause to decree its liquidation on the grounds that the company had exceeded its legal powers, particularly as regards its capitalization. A liquidating committee took over the affairs of the defunct concern while the Government set about the difficult task of solving a series of complex problems in order to arrive at a reorganization of the industry which should be as satisfactory as possible.

¹⁰ Report to the Minister of Finance, November 5, 1931. For English translation see "Hearings" cited, p. 2054.

¹¹ *Ibid.*, p. 2065.

For nearly a year, the Government considered a number of proposed solutions, and the most acceptable of all was finally approved by the national congress and incorporated into law no. 5350, dated January 8, 1934.

During the course of the exhaustive study made by the Chilean Government, it became generally accepted that there were several highly desirable objectives to be sought in order to cope with the nitrate problem. These could be grouped, more or less, as follows:

To place the industry in a better position favorably to compete with the synthetic producers; insure the future operation of the nitrate plants by making adequate provision for their sound financial position; preserve the confidence and good will of creditors and investors and avoid unfavorable reaction in the international markets; protect the revenues of the State; prevent any possibilities of monopolistic domination of the industry and encourage its nationalization; distribute the work among the plants of the different nitrate zones in order to prevent unemployment, protect the northern provinces, and preserve the natural markets of the southern provinces.¹²

Even a casual reading of the outstanding provisions of law no. 5350, of which a very brief résumé follows, will show the careful efforts made by the Chilean legislators to correct past evils and to place the nitrate industry on as sound a basis as possible.

The law establishes as a State monopoly the exportation of and trade in nitrate and iodine, authorizing the President of the Republic to transfer this right to a corporation to be known as "Chilean Nitrate and Iodine Sales Corporation." All reciprocal obligations between the State and the Cosach were cancelled, the State recovering all relinquished rights over the nitrate reserve lands. The corporation will conduct its operations with all nitrate and iodine stocks existing in Chile or abroad on July 1, 1933, and with all new production thenceforth, in accordance with the quotas to be assigned the producers.

The corporation shall determine annually the price for each producer for the nitrate year from July 1 to June 30. The price shall be the "industrial cost", free alongside ship, which, according to the law, shall be understood to be all the expenses of the respective producing enterprise, including necessary repairs, *but without taking into account amortization of capital investments on machinery, depletion of goods, interest on capital, or service of debts* [italics by author]. To the industrial cost there shall be added, as part of the price, the sum of \$1.50 (U.S. currency) per metric ton of nitrate. The producers shall use this \$1.50 per ton for a period of 5 years for the exclusive purpose of accumulating working capital, although they may make deductions for necessary plant improvements. Whenever the condi-

¹² "Anales del Instituto de Ingenieros de Chile." Santiago. October 1933, p. 383.

tions of the market may warrant, this sum may be decreased by the corporation in order to have a lower selling price.

No person, group of persons, company, enterprise, or consortium of enterprises may obtain, directly or indirectly, a total quota which exceeds 65 percent of the annual sales. The corporation is empowered to direct the producers to distribute their production among the various nitrate zones. The corporation shall decrease the volume of stocks accumulated up to June 30, 1933, by selling a certain percentage therefrom every year.

The profits of the corporation shall be the difference between the price paid and the selling price, after deducting its expenses. Of this



A STREET IN ANTOFAGASTA, CHILE.

Through this port are exported large quantities of nitrate from the great fields about 40 miles inland.

profit, 25 percent will revert to the Chilean treasury as the consideration for the transfer of the monopoly rights to the corporation. The Government will apply one fifth of its share to promote the mining and industrial development of the Provinces of Tarapacá and Antofagasta. From the remaining 75 percent of the profits representing the share of the producers, the corporation will deduct such sums as may be necessary to pay the interest and amortization of the "prior secured bonds" issued by the Cosach. The face value of these bonds does not exceed \$49,000,000; they bear 6 percent interest. The corporation will also issue bonds, with rights equal to those of the prior secured bonds, to cover loans of \$3,000,000 made through the Anglo-Chilean Nitrate Corporation. All other debts of the Cosach

shall be considered as private obligations and so recognized by the respective companies from which they originated. The law further provides for as speedy a redemption of the indebtedness of the industry as possible by applying a certain amount of the profits, in the years in which these may reach above a normal average, to effect extraordinary amortization payments. The profits shall be distributed among the producers according to their sales quotas, but the price paid to the producers by the corporation will be adjusted in such manner that the total payment per ton of nitrate or per kilo of iodine will be the same for all producers. All pending differences in any nitrate year will be adjusted in following years. The export tax is eliminated, and the producers are granted various exemptions from taxation.

From the foregoing, which is merely a very brief résumé of the outstanding provisions of the law, some important features may be pointed out:

By excluding from the "industrial cost" of the nitrate, capital charges and other costs and by charging them to the profits, the industry may be in a better position successfully to compete in the world markets through a considerable reduction in the production cost. The State, furthermore, does not tax the industry but shares in the profits. By assigning quotas to the producers and by disposing gradually of accumulated stocks, an effective means of checking ruinous overproduction is placed in the hands of the corporation; in which, it must be remembered, the producers themselves and the Government of Chile are duly represented, acting in common accord in matters which are vitally important to both.

The producers are directed to keep their principal books of accounts in Chile and in the Spanish language. For all purchases, national material and products will be given preference, other circumstances being equal. By distributing the production of nitrate among the different zones, undue concentration into a few units is checked and employment is kept at as high a level as possible. The rights of the workers are duly protected.

The future alone holds the success of the new plan and the ultimate fate of the nitrate industry. By presenting a unified front, the industry may succeed in securing a reasonable share of the world's nitrogen trade through international agreements. An agreement has already been signed with Germany, for the sale in that country, free from customs duties and other restrictions, of 106,000 tons of nitrate, with two possible increases of 24,000 tons each. Similar agreements with other countries are no doubt to be expected in the future.

It is generally conceded, however, that a return of Chilean nitrate to the predominant position in the markets of the world is unlikely. The Chileans themselves have not been ignorant of this possibility

and for several years back they have been depending with decreasing degree on revenues from nitrate for the operation of their national budget. (See table on p. 337.) In fact, in the budget for 1934, revenues from this source are entirely eliminated. The Government plans to destine the larger portion of its 25-percent share of the profits of the corporation to the service of the national debt.

FLOATING CONGRESS OF THE PAN AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

THE Floating Congress of the Pan American Medical Association comprising 600 persons—physicians, their families and friends—returned to New York March 30 on the S.S. *Pennsylvania* after a 16-day cruise which took them to Cuba, Panama, Colombia, Venezuela, and Puerto Rico, in the interest of medical science and international good will. Delegates represented 13 countries.

The Presidents of Panama, Venezuela, and Cuba and the Governor of Puerto Rico personally welcomed the congress to their respective countries, and offered demonstrations of the achievements of their own physicians in medical and surgical science.

The order of Carlos Finlay, the highest medical honor of Cuba, was conferred by Colonel Carlos Mendieta, President of Cuba, upon Dr. John O. McReynolds, of Dallas, Texas; Dr. Joseph Jordan Eller, of New York; Dr. José G. Lewis, of Panama, and Dr. William Howard, of Dallas, Texas.

Delightful luncheons were enjoyed ashore in Habana, the first stop on the cruise, in Panama, and then in Cartagena, whose massive walls four centuries old tell of her romantic history. There the authorities placed automobiles at the disposition of the guests for a visit to the city. Next the physicians landed at Puerto Cabello, and in cars supplied by the Venezuelan Government travelled over a fine concrete road, through magnificent scenery, to the splendid hotel at Maracay where they spent the night. Next day they motored to Caracas, where a delegation of the visiting physicians laid a wreath on the tomb of Bolívar, the Liberator of six countries. The same day several hundred of their Venezuelan colleagues joined them for luncheon on board the boat; the *Pennsylvania* had proceeded to La Guaira, the port of Caracas, to which it is united by a beautiful winding road which climbs about three thousand feet in its 20 miles. San Juan, Puerto Rico, was the final stop on a voyage marked by perfect weather on the lovely Caribbean.

In Maracay and San Juan, the visiting physicians held scientific sessions jointly with their local colleagues. Of outstanding interest

was the session in Puerto Rico where the leading figure was Dr. Bailey K. Ashford, whose discoveries in the study of tropical diseases, such as hookworm and sprue, have saved countless lives.

Sixty-four scientific sessions, including one at La Guaira, Venezuela, in which 300 Venezuelan doctors participated, were held on board the S.S. *Pennsylvania* during the cruise, and 175 scientific papers covering many phases of medicine and surgery were presented by outstanding North and South American physicians.

Dr. Lewellys Barker, of Johns Hopkins, often called the dean of American medicine, struck the keynote for the convention when he presented a paper surveying internal medicine during the last 50 years and calling this period the most fruitful in medical work in the history of mankind. Of extraordinary interest was a paper by Dr. Hugh H. Young, of Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, on the surgical treatment of congenital malformations, in which he demonstrated methods of normalizing persons thus afflicted.

Among others who delivered papers were Dr. Foster Kennedy, New York; Dr. Harlow Brooks, New York; Dr. Bernard Sachs, New York; Dr. Chevalier Jackson, Philadelphia; Dr. John O. McReynolds, Dallas, Texas; Dr. William Sharpe, New York; Dr. Fred H. Albee, New York; Dr. Joseph Jordan Eller, New York; Dr. William D. Haggard, Nashville, Tenn.; Dr. J. J. Valentine, New York; Dr. John Duff, New York; Dr. Charles P. Mathe, San Francisco, Calif.; Dr. Howard R. Hartman, Rochester, Minn.; Dr. Edgar Mayer, New York; Dr. Max Einhorn, New York; Dr. I. W. Held, New York; Dr. Bolivar J. Lloyd, Washington, D.C.; Dr. Temple Fay, Philadelphia, Pa.; Dr. Philip Lehrman, New York; and Dr. William D. Gill, San Antonio, Texas.

The installation of newly-elected officers of the association was held the last night out aboard the ship. Dr. Chevalier Jackson of Philadelphia, inventor of the bronchoscope and world-famous physician, was inducted as president by Dr. William D. Haggard of Nashville, Tenn., and Dr. Harlow Brooks of New York. Dr. Jackson succeeds Dr. John O. McReynolds. Dr. Brooks, New York, awarded the Pan American Medical Association gold medallions to the four past-presidents who were present—Dr. William Sharpe, Dr. Fred H. Albee, Dr. J. J. Valentine and Dr. John O. McReynolds. Dr. Joseph Jordan Eller, formerly executive secretary, was made director general of the association. Dr. José López-Silvero of Habana was chosen executive secretary, and Dr. J. J. Valentine treasurer.

In discussing the cruise Dr. Jackson said:

The Pan American Medical Association is intended as a means of discussion and of effort at solution of many problems of medical science. For example, some diseases like cancer must be studied in all countries, and comparisons made at international meetings of physicians. Other diseases may be prevalent in one

country and not in another. For instance, amoebic dysentery is usually regarded as a disease of the Tropics. It has invaded the United States; and we wish to learn all that our confrères in the Tropics know about it. Other diseases call for international control. Before such control can be established scientific research and discussion by physicians are necessary. These are only a few of the many phases of our work.

Many social features were arranged by our Latin American hosts. The trip over the Andes by automobile on perfect concrete highways, as guests of the Government of Venezuela, was a memorable one. This highway is a gigantic engineering feat which has rendered this magnificent mountain region of easy access. We were royally welcomed in all of the countries visited.

It is expected that the next convention of the Pan American Medical Association will be held in the form of a cruise to Rio de Janeiro during the month of August 1935.

SECOND INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION

FOR the last 5 years it has been the ambition of educators throughout the Americas to hold a second inter-American conference on education, in harmony with resolutions adopted by the International Conferences of American States meeting in Santiago, Habana, and Montevideo, respectively. This ambition is about to be realized, for the Chilean section of the Inter-American Federation of Education has taken charge of arrangements and invitations have been extended through the Government of Chile to the other American Republics to send delegates to Santiago for a conference to meet from September 9 to 16, 1934. Doubtless many attendants will be drawn to the gathering not only because of their deep interest in its purposes, but also because it will be early spring in Chile, a most delightful time to visit her beautiful capital set against the background of the towering Andes.

A preliminary organization conference of the Inter-American Federation of Education was held in Atlanta in 1929, under the auspices of and in connection with the meeting of the National Education Association. The purpose of the Inter-American Federation is to promote Pan American accord through education in general and, in particular, through character education and vocational training, to increase the civic understanding and earning power of the American peoples. It is pursuant to this aim that at the coming conference each country will offer three papers of general character, two of which must be of inter-American interest, and one of local or national interest; and two reports, one each on vocational training and on

character education in the respective country. Other papers may be offered as approved by the national official committee.

The active members of the conference in Santiago will be members of National Cooperating Committees and delegates named by them; presidents, or their representatives, of recognized educational associations; and outstanding teachers, not included in the above, who may be indicated by ministers of education.

Cooperating members will be persons or institutions of recognized status in the American countries, registering with the secretary and paying a small membership fee. Cooperating members have the privilege of attendance and the right to receive publications of the conference.

The National Cooperating Committee for the United States has a distinguished membership. It is composed of: Dr. Mary E. Woolley, president, Mt. Holyoke College, and past-president, American Association of University Women; Dr. Lotus D. Coffman, president, University of Minnesota, and past-president, National Association of State Universities; Dr. John Dewey, professor of philosophy, Columbia University, and honorary president of the National Education Association and the Progressive Education Association; Dr. George Johnson, secretary general, National Catholic Education Association; Dr. Henry Lester Smith, dean, School of Education, University of Indiana; Dr. Anson Phelps Stokes, president and chairman, Education Committee, Phelps Stokes Foundation; Dr. Glen Levin Swiggett, chairman, Organization Committee, Inter-American Federation of Education; Dr. Augustus O. Thomas, secretary general, World Federation of Education Associations, and Dr. George F. Zook, United States Commissioner of Education.

The membership of the Chilean Cooperating Committee assures complete and successful arrangements for the conference. The honorary chairman is the Minister of Education. The chairman of the committee is Dr. Agustín Edwards, president of the Chilean Academy of History, and Dr. Raúl Ramírez, professor of English in the University of Chile, is secretary.

Correspondence relating to the Inter-American Federation of Education or to the National Cooperating Committee for the United States should be addressed to Dr. Glen Levin Swiggett, 1201 16th Street NW., Washington, D.C.





JOHN LENORD MERRILL.

President of the Pan American Society of the United States since 1927.

On March 19 many diplomatic and consular representatives of Latin American countries and other men outstanding in public life joined at a dinner given in New York in paying tribute to John Lenord Merrill, president of All America Cables, Inc., on the fiftieth anniversary of his service with that company. President Roosevelt sent a message of congratulation; Mr. Elihu Root jr., acted as toastmaster; addresses were made by the Minister of Panama, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro; the Minister of Venezuela, Dr. Pedro Manuel Areaya; Mr. R. Fulton Cutting, and the Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe. Mr. Merrill is widely known and esteemed not only for his ability and integrity but also for the constructive friendliness which he has devoted to the furtherance of close personal contacts and means of intelligence between citizens of the Pan American Republics. Mr. Merrill has been decorated with the Orden de la Cruz de Boyacá by Colombia, the Orden del Libertador by Venezuela, the Ordre Honneur et Mérite by Haiti, the Medal of the Cruz do Sul by Brazil, and the Orden Al Mérito by Ecuador.

GOVERNMENT HOUSING IN ARGENTINA

THE housing problem in Buenos Aires, a city of 2,215,000 population spread over an area more than twice as great as that of Paris, is perennial because of the city's rapid growth. In 1869 the Argentine capital had but 178,000 inhabitants; in 1900 there were 800,000, and in 1919, 1,658,000. Not only the poor but persons of modest means, such as teachers, have difficulty in finding modern houses and apartments. The National Housing Commission has been working valiantly, with the somewhat limited means at its disposal, to supply this need. It was established by law No. 9677 of October 5, 1915, and its funds were obtained from a tax on horse racing.

The law prescribed that dwellings or apartment houses were to be built in accessible locations and that they should fulfill certain requirements as to sanitation, height of rooms, closets, built-in furniture, common laundries in apartment houses, and other provisions conducive to health and comfort.

Houses are sold to persons gainfully employed who have a family and do not have other property worth more than 3,000 pesos, or an equivalent income. The houses are distributed by lot among reputable applicants, for there are always more would-be home owners than houses. Title to the property is acquired by monthly payments amounting to 3 percent interest and an accumulative minimum amortization of 3 percent, the debt being paid off in a little more than 23 years. It should be added that a house costing less than 10,000 pesos and not used as a place of business or warehouse is exempt from real-estate taxes for 10 years.

The action of the commission was begun on a capital of 3,267,393 pesos, increased by the end of 1930 to 7,607,106 pesos through rents and a new tax on racing. Three hundred seventeen individual homes had been built by that time and two apartment houses, containing 104 apartments. At the end of 1930 it was planned to erect 14 more apartment houses, with 144 apartments, in the Guillermo Rawson subdivision. Space was reserved for a school and a children's playground. The commission decided that such collective dwellings offered the most economical way of supplying good housing at moderate rents, always provided that the buildings were set in attractive surroundings and planned to receive ample light and air. The accompanying illustrations show these new apartments as well as some of the individual houses opened to purchase January 1, 1928.



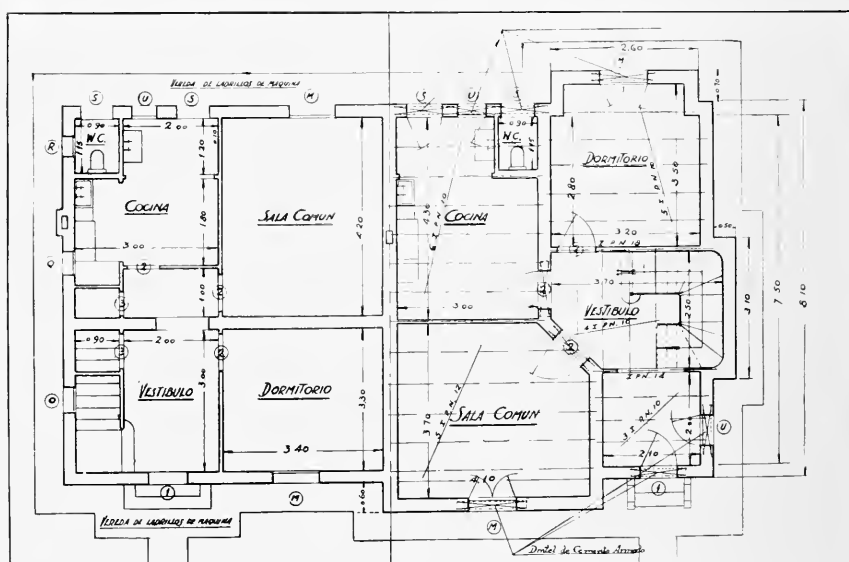
THE GUILLERMO RAWSON SUBDIVISION, BUENOS AIRES.

Both the detached houses and apartments in this subdivision were built with government money by the National Commission on Housing.



IN AN APARTMENT HOUSE, GUILLERMO RAWSON SUBDIVISION.

Upper: A living room. Lower: Laundry for the common use of tenants.



SEMIDETACHED HOUSES, GUILLERMO RAWSON SUBDIVISION.

Upper: It will be noted that this wide, pleasant street is served by electric cars. The law creating the Housing Commission provided that all houses erected by it should be easily accessible. Lower: Downstairs each house contains a vestibule, living or dining room, bedroom, and kitchen; upstairs there are three bedrooms and bath.



ROW HOUSES AND SCHOOL, GUILLERMO RAWSON SUBDIVISION.

ARAUCANIAN ART

I. TEXTILES AND POTTERY ¹

IT is not known when the territory comprising what is now Chile was first populated, nor whence came the first inhabitants. The only thing that can be said with assurance is that incontrovertible remains of paleolithic man, dating back at least three thousand years and perhaps much longer, have been found in different parts of the coast. Evidences of all phases of neolithic culture from the very beginning have been discovered and its development can be followed to the Bronze Age. During the Neolithic Age, certain cultural centers came to the fore because they progressed more rapidly than others. They were in the northern provinces, and apparently did not extend to the center and south of the country until much later.

Chief among those civilizations was that of the Atacamas; archeology and especially geographic nomenclature show us that they were one of the oldest peoples in the central region of the Andes. As Peruvian cultures developed, however, the Atacamas retired to the south; their descendants are still to be found scattered through the paramos of Atacama, Chile, and Jujuy, Argentina.

The culture of this people, although primitive, was fairly well developed. Artistically it was inferior to the Peruvian, and much of its progress was unquestionably due to the influences of neighboring and more advanced peoples. The Atacamas tilled the soil, domesticated animals (they had great herds of llamas) and engaged in business and industry. They made baskets, wove cotton and woolen cloth, and worked in wood, although their wooden sculptures were inferior to those of their neighbors to the north and to the south. They were great traders and crossed and recrossed the nitrate desert in every direction, bearing fish and dried molluscs, shells, salt, and other products of the littoral, to be used in trading with the inhabitants of the interior and on the other side of the Andes, where these objects have been found in Argentine burials. They also were acquainted with metals, especially copper and bronze, although it is probable that these were introduced among them from their southern neighbors.

South of the Atacamas, on both sides of the Andes, lived the Diaguitas, a people whose culture was in many respects similar to that of the former, although more highly developed. This is especially ap-

¹ A synthesis of the explanatory matter, by Señor Ricardo E. Latcham and Dr. Aurelio Oyarzún, respectively, prefacing the illustrated "Album de tejidos y alfarería", published by the Museum of Ethnology and Anthropology of Santiago, Chile, for the Ibero-American Exposition held in Sevilla, Spain, in 1929. The illustrations on pp. 353, 356, 357, 360, and 361 are taken from this album.—EDITOR.

parent in the decoration of their pottery, particularly in the Chilean provinces, where the artifacts of this kind are the most beautiful to be found in the country. They were also excellent metal workers; they produced a very hard bronze capable of acquiring an excellent edge, and so tempered that for their arms and tools they had little need of iron, a metal unknown to American Indians.

From the Choapa River (the northern boundary of the Province of Aconcagua) to Reloncaví Bay (where Puerto Montt is situated) there dwelt another and quite distinct people.

This people, although very numerous—counting more than a million souls at the time of the Spanish conquest—had no name of its own. The different tribes which composed it were called by the names of the localities which they inhabited—Picunches (northerners), Promaucás (those living south of the Maule), Pehuenches (pinegrove dwellers), to mention a few.

Their culture, although fairly well developed, was inferior to that of the Diaguitas and even of the Atacamas. Living in the most fertile region of the country, they practiced agriculture and made textiles of wool and of vegetable fibers, although they generally wore skins; they owned herds of llamas and made pottery of good quality, much of it decorated with simple designs. They had no knowledge, however, of metals, and cannot be considered to have progressed beyond the neolithic stage, since the greater part of their arms and tools were of stone. In the extreme north of the region occupied by this people the cultural influence of their neighbors the Diaguitas was felt, as is evident from the finer quality of their artifacts.

This civilization, which extended roughly from the Santiago hills to Puerto Montt, was, in spite of local differences, uniform and unchanged for centuries. There was one interruption, probably about two centuries before the arrival of the Spaniards in Chile, caused by the invasion of a new people, evidently less civilized. The invaders made their headquarters in the region between the Bío-Bío and the Toltén Rivers, expelling the greater part of the former inhabitants. They probably came from the Argentine pampas, although nothing further is known of their origin.

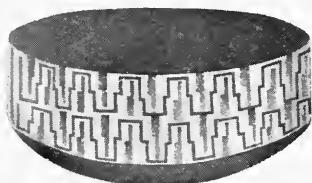
The newcomers intermingled with the natives of the occupied region and little by little acquired the rudiments of the culture and the language of the conquered people, losing their own language so completely that no trace of it has been left. They kept some of their old customs, however, which enables their influence on the tribes to the north and to the south to be traced. This invading people is known historically by the name of Araucanians, a word used by Ercilla in writing of the Indians of Arauco, a province of Chile, but which gradually came to include all those who warred successfully against



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CHILEAN POTTERY.

1. This vase from northern Chile belongs to that phase of Atacama culture which shows the Chincha influence in the wavy and hooked lines and stepped geometrical designs joined by a Greek fret. 2. On this vase of the same culture the enclosed S-shaped figure represents a 2-headed serpent. 3. This bowl of the Diaguita culture is typical of the period in which the Chincha influence began to be felt. Characteristic of all Diaguita decoration are the colors—red, black, and white. 4. Although conforming to the canons of Diaguita art, the decorative motif of this bowl is a survival of the Tiahuanaco era with the Chincha influence apparent in the dotted rectangle which contains a human face. 5. In this jug elements of the Atacama culture are combined with Chincha motifs of triangles in horizontal bands and zig-zag lines. 6. This piece of Diaguita pottery has Chincha embellishments of reticular designs, tiny llamas, and spiral curves.

the Spaniards for three centuries. (Ercilla, it will be remembered, was a sixteenth-century Spanish soldier-poet, the author of *La Araucana*, the first American epic.)

For a better understanding of Araucanian art, a brief survey of the degree of culture at which they had arrived at the time of the conquest—early in the sixteenth century—may not be amiss. They dwelt usually in square houses, with one or more doors and a straw roof, rising in two faces to a ridge pole. They grew beans, potatoes, quinoa, corn, peppers, and mango (a now extinct cereal). Their domestic animals included ducks and dogs, llamas and guanacos. They were hunters, and used the foods abundantly offered by the earth and the sea. Stone hoes and sharpened stones comprised their agricultural tools. Their plates were of clay or wood, the earlier ones plain, but the later and quite rare ones had designs of Incan origin. Their arms included short bows and arrows, slings, lances, maces, and star-shaped stones fastened to a stick.

They buried their dead horizontally in wooden cases made especially for the purpose, directly in the earth.

They were smokers, using stone and clay pipes and native tobacco. They split their lower lips and tattooed their faces. The family government was a matriarchy, and the use of totems was common; the children adopted the totem and surname of the mother. Polygamy was general.

Although the families lived isolated, they formed communities with a political, civil, and military government. The *ulmenes*, or caciques—in other words, the civil government—had jurisdiction over the military leaders and elected from among them the general in case of war.

They were polytheists, and it is not certain whether they recognized a Supreme Being. Among their gods were Guenu-pillan, the soul of the sky, Meulen, a good spirit, Huecub, a bad one, Epumanum, the spirit of war, and Pillan, representing the soul of dead relatives who were venerated after death.

From this brief sketch it may be seen that Araucanian culture was complex, brought from outside, and doubtless introduced originally in different periods by peoples related to them, and later by the Incas, whose domination antedated by not more than fifty years the Spanish occupation.

Owing to the varieties of climate in Chile, there is a great difference in the archeological remains in the different regions. In the practically rainless north, artifacts of all kinds have been kept in good or fair condition for many centuries and even for thousands of years. But in the south, owing to the dampness of the soil, only articles of stone and pottery remained intact. Textiles, basketry, and objects of wood, metal, and even bone, were rapidly destroyed. As a result,

ceramics form the best, almost the only, index to the pre-Hispanic indigenous culture.

Ceramics appeared in Chile, as everywhere else in the world, during the neolithic period, which apparently occurred many centuries after its development in the more cultured centers of America. Nowhere have any traces of the beginnings of the craft been found. Even the earliest pottery known shows a fairly advanced technique, proving that it was probably introduced with other foreign cultural influences instead of being a native development. Pieces such as are common in some other regions, indicating that the pottery was modeled on

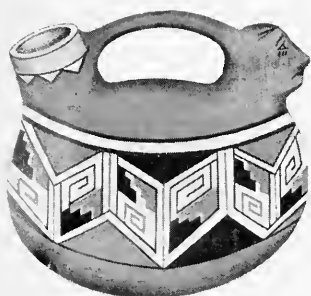


CHILEAN POTTERY.

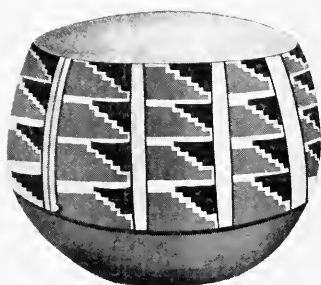
Left: This beautiful vase in its form and decorative motif shows traces of the Tiahuanacan culture, one of the most advanced civilizations of pre-Hispanic South America. As in most Diaguita ceramics, the vase has dark red for its foundation color, with embellishing designs in red and black alternated on horizontal white bands. Right: This is the only known specimen of this style of jar. While showing the same combination of colors as the vase at the left, it nevertheless belongs to a much later period, as is determined from the Chincha influence observed in the three ornamental bands.

baskets or other objects serving as molds, have not been discovered in Chile. The pottery from every region and every period shows the same manner of manufacture, from one end of Chile to the other. This type, common to the whole continent, might justly be called "American."

The Chilean Indians were not acquainted with the potter's wheel. Their method consisted in making long thin strips of properly prepared clay, which were put one on top of the other in the form of a spiral (coiled ware) until the vessel was finished. The surface was then smoothed with stones, shells, wooden knives, or similar instruments. The pieces were dried in the shade before being fired.



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CHILEAN POTTERY.

1. This jug from the Diaguita region has a double neck, one end of which is closed and modeled in the form of a human head. The decorations are arranged in such a manner as to give a perspective, though it is doubtful that the artist had such an idea in mind. 2. Though from the central provinces, this bowl bears unmistakable traces of the Diaguita culture in the arrangement of the stepped design and the combination of red, black, and white. 3. This jar from central Chile bears a characteristic decoration of the region—a lineal design carried out in blood red on a light-yellow background. 4. This “duck jar”, a type found nowhere but in the Diaguita region, bears a decorative motif common to that section of the country prior to the introduction of the Chíncha influence. 5. That southern Chile formed a part of the same cultural zone as the central provinces seems to be borne out by this jar from Valdivia, which closely resembles pottery found in the central region. 6. This unusually shaped vessel from southern Chile is supposedly of the post-Conquest era, notwithstanding certain Incan influences.

Ovens were not used; the firing was done in embers, in fires especially prepared for the purpose, or, in the case of black pottery, with paste or damp straw.

As elsewhere, the Chilean Indians made two kinds of pottery—the domestic, generally crude and unpolished, and the ceremonial, often burnished and decorated with geometric figures, animals, or men. The colors used in the decorations were sober and few. Some of the designs were painted in black on a red background, others in red and black on a white, cream, or yellow ochre background. With the exception of a small section in the extreme north of the country, other colors were not used and even there slate or a gray blue was only occasionally employed.

The designs were few and common to every region throughout Chile; the manner of combining them varied from valley to valley, although there were certain motives typical of the respective cultures which distinguish them one from the other. The number of forms, on the other hand, was very great, and although many of them were used in all regions, each culture had its own particular ones.

Araucanian decoration as applied to pottery was often modified by exotic influences from Peruvian and Bolivian sources; and it is precisely these infiltrations which permit the establishment of a relative chronology for the Chilean cultures.

We have no sure knowledge of the epoch in which the Atacama and Diaguita Indians began to make pottery, but apparently it was not before the flowering of the Tiahuanaco civilization, possibly in the fifth century. At any rate, the most ancient remains of that industry found up to the present in the indigenous sepulchres indicate, from their form and decoration or because of other objects found with them, that they belonged to that period. Such influences, however, have not been found south of the Province of Coquimbo, and it is doubtful whether a knowledge of pottery existed at that time farther south.

After the decadence of the Tiahuanaco civilization, possibly about the end of the ninth century, the Chilean cultures passed through a period of development of their own, in which each region produced local types and styles. Three centuries later, new influences were felt in the north which changed radically the artistic styles of the old Chilean cultures; these influences extended slowly throughout the whole territory and formed the basis of a new decorative art, many of whose features are still apparent in the minor household industries in the rural districts, especially in the textiles. The culture which spread in this manner and had so powerful an effect on all phases of later Chilean art was that of the Chinchas, a coastal people of Peru, who flourished before the period of Incan domination and conquered the southern parts of that country and northern Chile.

In the earlier periods, the decoration on Chilean pottery was exclusively rectilinear, in large designs. In the regions of the Atacamas and the Diaguitas, such designs were superseded by the use of small figures. The Chinchas introduced curves, wavy lines, spirals, and volutes, all hitherto unknown, as well as small zoomorphic, ornithomorphic, and anthropomorphic figures and new combinations of all these elements with the old motives.

ARAUCANIANS OF
SOUTHERN CHILE.

The man wears a poncho woven in the not uncommon pattern of a stepped design. A distinctive part of the woman's costume, though partly concealed by her shawl, is the elaborate silver ornament.

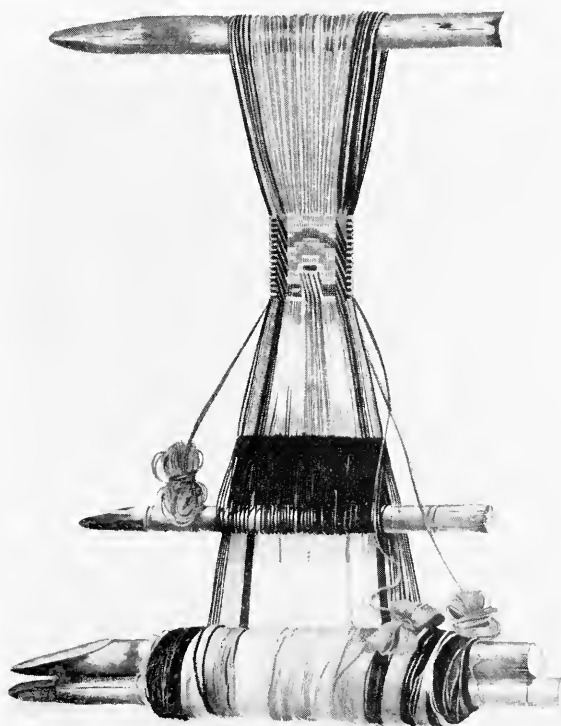


Nevertheless, south of the Diaguita region, the exclusive use of geometric figures in straight lines was continued, and in the pottery of the central and southern provinces not a single curve, much less the representation of living beings, is to be found in painted decoration, although from time to time rudely modeled figures of men, animals, and birds have been discovered.

The last cultural influence in pre-Colombian Chile was that of the Incas. Until a few years ago, because archaeological research had not been systematically carried out in the country, it was supposed that all the culture and all the arts found by the Spaniards on their arrival had been introduced by the Incas. Now, however, it is known

that these conquerors dominated only the central provinces, and that the greater part of the progress reached there was the fruit of a long slow growth, whose beginnings must be found a thousand years before that invasion. It is true that the Incas made the influence of their more advanced culture felt, but not to the degree or in the form generally believed.

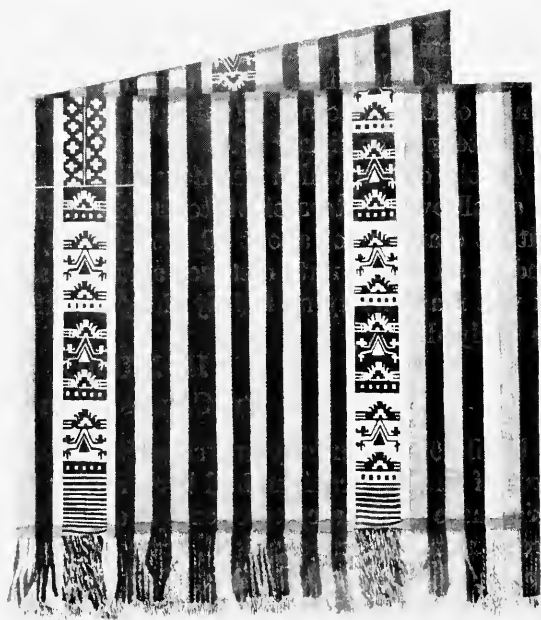
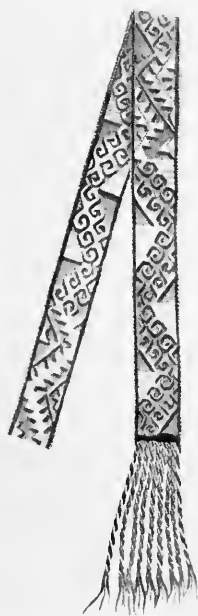
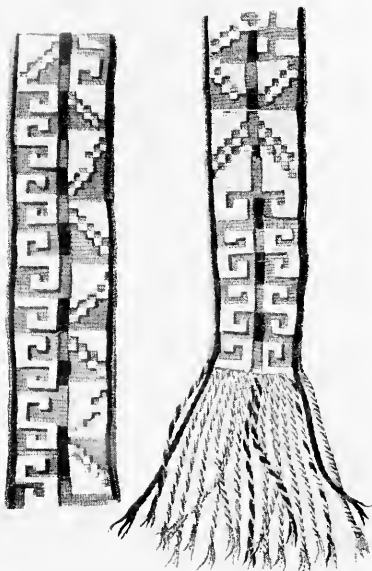
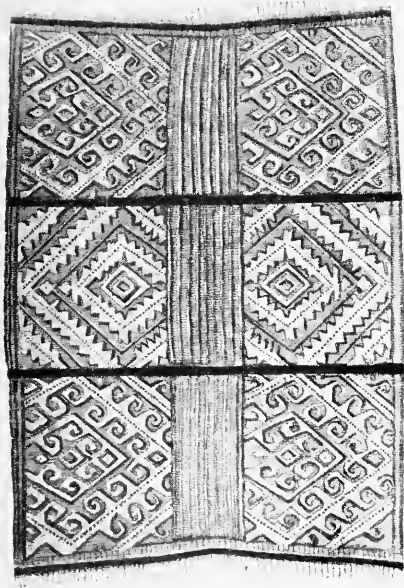
Writers from the sixteenth century to the present day have described the Araucanian costume. One of the earliest, Diego de Rosales, saw some Indians naked, others wearing skins, feathers,



A PRIMITIVE LOOM ON WHICH AN ARAUCANIAN BELT IS BEING WOVEN.

bark, or straw or woolen textiles in bright colors. That would seem to prove the assertion that the abundance of wool, due to the introduction of sheep by the Spaniards, facilitated and perfected Indian weaving. The northern llamas and the domestic guanacos had not produced sufficient wool to provide for the common use of these textiles. That the Araucanians have retained the models introduced by the Incas was noted by Uhle: "In the modern customs of the Araucanians many customs of the Incan civilization have lingered on."

Those who dressed in wool wore sleeveless low-necked shirts, and the men wrapped about them a cloth reaching to their thighs. The



ARAUCANIAN TEXTILES.

Upper left: Saddle blanket showing meander and stepped pattern developed alternately in lozenges. Upper right: A belt on which the stepped design has been divided into two sections. Lower left: A belt, of the kind called "huillo", combines a stepped designed and a meander pattern. Lower right: This handsome blanket has plain red, orange, and black stripes, and patterned stripes on which zoomorphic designs and crosses are worked alternately black on white and white on black.

women covered the entire body, only the arms and feet appearing unclothed. Their ponchos were striped, and it is quite probable that these garments were introduced at an early date from Peru, since they are found there, at least, from the time of the Tiahuanaco culture on.

Araucanian textiles have always been appreciated for their texture, permanence of dye, designs, and blending of colors. Unfortunately, European textiles have now invaded Araucanian cabins and anilin dyes replaced the vegetable coloring formerly used.

An examination of Araucanian textile designs shows that the motifs or designs are not very varied. They consist of crosses, stepped parallelograms, and zoological and anthropomorphic figures of various classes.

Human figures and animals on Araucanian textiles are primitive in character and execution, but they are none the less easy to recognize. They form stripes on ponchos and belts and are the distinguishing feature of the textile known as *ñemeñ-macuiñ*.

The textiles are generally vari-colored. The ponchos have vertical stripes or stepped rectilinear designs. These are obtained by tying, on a piece of white wool, strips of leather or resistant vegetable fiber to make the design which is to remain uncolored when the article is dyed, generally blue or black. Ponchos made in this manner are very common. They imitate generally the well-known design which occurs at Chan-Chan near Trujillo, in which the Greek cross is the center of the pattern. In other cases there are simply small squares with stepped or zigzag sides.

An old design which has now disappeared from textiles consisted of an all-over pattern of white rings, about two centimeters wide and with a diameter of about 10 centimeters, distributed symmetrically and at an appropriate distance apart on a red or black background. It was made by tying tightly the parts of the rings which were not to be dyed.

II. MUSIC

By CARLOS ISAMITT

Until 1932 no orderly and scientific collection of the musical treasures of the Araucanians had been attempted; no one could refer to this phase of their culture, except superficially, with any real comprehension. A first step had, however, been taken in 1928, when the Bureau of Artistic Education, of which I was a member, managed to secure four phonograph records of Araucanian songs, which were a revelation to those attending the International Congress of Folk Art held at Prague under the auspices of the League of Nations. Aside from this, and from enthusiastic efforts of the Chilean musicians Carlos Lavín and Humberto Allende to utilize native themes, nothing had even begun to disclose the extraordinary richness of Araucanian musical folklore.

Aware as I was of the difficulties of a serious investigation in this field, I went early in 1932 to the very center of the Indian settlements in the Province of Cautín, situated in southern Chile, with the purpose of securing first-hand documentation and knowledge of the intimate relation between each song, dance, and legend and the daily life and environment that has produced these manifestations of Araucanian culture.

Half a year of diligent research and association with the Indians helped to solve the material problems of lodging and transportation and to surmount the more difficult psychological barriers of suspicion and great timidity, and enabled me to penetrate to some extent into the creative art of this people.

The value of my first finds encouraged me to continue my research, without heeding the inclemency of this region of almost continual rain. At the end of the first six months I had collected valuable material of a completely unsuspected nature, a new contribution to learning and to art. Urged on by my own interest and by the enthusiasm that this indigenous music aroused not only in Chile but also in Uruguay, France, and England, I continued my studies in 1933, covering a much greater territory than the year before.

As a result of these two seasons of continuous research, I succeeded in collecting some extremely interesting folklore material: More than a hundred airs, which I have classified according to their characteristic legends, ceremonies, dances; typical musical instruments; utensils used in ritual acts; textiles uncontaminated by alien influences; methods used in extracting vegetable dyes; drawings of stirrup ornaments, and so on.

There is a close relation between the beautiful textiles of the Araucanians and their music. Their songs have an extraordinary rhythmic and melodic richness. The many scales which they utilize, the typical accentuation, the singular expressiveness, especially sometimes in the relationship between words and music, all demonstrate an admirable racial creative power. The habit of creativeness and the characteristics of the resulting production have not been annihilated by the adverse circumstance of white domination, by exploitation and persecution, nor by other harmful influences which have threatened the Indian.

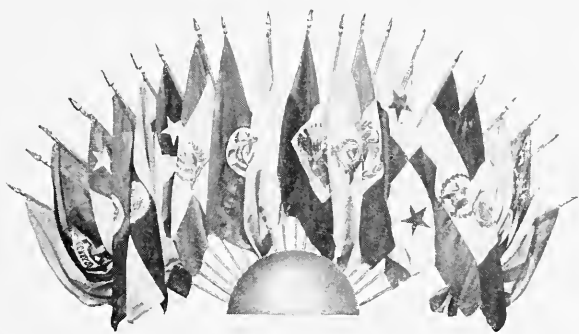
The Araucanian has music for all the acts of his life, from songs for children to the choruses and ritual songs which accompany religious and social ceremonies. My collection includes also music for typical instruments. Every air is accompanied by the Araucanian words, a translation, and notations showing the purpose for which it is used and its relation to the life which gave rise to its composition.

Since making the collection I have undertaken to score the melodies for accompaniment. This has given birth to a new musical literature.

So far I have about twenty selections for voice and piano, including *umag ül pichichen* (lullabies for the dear child), *porün ül pichichen* (songs for making the dear child dance), *lla-mekan* (women's elegiac songs), *ñuññ ül* (threshers' songs), *kauchu ül* (songs of unmarried women), *puliwe ül* (songs for the game of *chueca*), *amul püllün* ("Be gone, spirit"—funeral songs), and various others. I have also scored others for piano alone, for piano and violin, and for a large orchestra.

Some of these pieces have been performed in Chile, where they have awakened lively interest. Other countries, both in America and Europe, have also asked that this music be made better known because of its unique artistic character as well as its ethnological value. However, it still remains unpublished, notwithstanding my desire that it should be a contribution to universal culture and should help to foster a truer conception of the Araucanian Indian and a more humane attitude toward him.





PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

At its monthly meeting held April 4, 1934, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union initiated action on a number of resolutions adopted at the Seventh Pan American Conference which met at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December last. The Board had before it reports of a number of special committees that had been considering the action to be taken on those resolutions entrusting specific functions to the Pan American Union.

Conferences on housing, aviation and rural life.—Acting on the report of the Committee on Special Conferences and Technical Commissions, the Governing Board provided for the meeting of a number of technical conferences contemplated by the resolutions adopted at Montevideo. Buenos Aires, Argentina, was designated as the seat of the Inter-American Congress on Housing and the Government of Argentina was requested to designate the exact date of the meeting and to issue the invitations to the Governments of the American Republics. The purpose of this conference is to consider the problem of housing in its hygienic and social aspects.

The Board recommended that the Inter-American Aviation Commission, also provided for by a resolution of the Montevideo Conference, meet at Panama, the center at which so many inter-American aviation lines already converge. The Director General was authorized to make inquiry of the Government of Panama as to whether it would be agreeable to that Government to have the Commission meet there. If so, it was requested to extend the invitation and to fix the exact date of meeting.

On the resolution of the Seventh Pan American Conference recommending that an Inter-American Congress on Rural Life be held, the Board recommended that in view of the fact that the Second Inter-American Conference on Agriculture will meet at Mexico in

1935, a special section be included in the program of that Conference to consider the various aspects of the problems of rural life.

Customs procedure and consular procedure.—The Governing Board authorized the Director General to transmit to the Governments the conclusions of the Pan American Commissions on Customs Procedure and on Consular Procedure which met some time ago at the Pan American Union with a view to determining what changes, if any, should in their opinion be made in the recommendations of these commissions. The Director General will formulate a report on the replies received.

Matters pertaining to commercial law.—The Director General was also authorized to have a study made and a report formulated on bills of exchange, drafts and checks, and also on simplification and uniformity of powers of attorney, and the juridical personality of foreign corporations.

Inter-American Labor Institute.—In considering the resolution adopted at Montevideo relative to the creation of an Inter-American Labor Institute, and the appointment of a commission which should serve as the organizing commission of the institute, the Board requested the Government of Argentina to appoint the three members required by this resolution. The plan of organization which this commission may formulate will be submitted to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union for transmission to the Governments of the American Republics.

Convention on historic monuments.—A special committee also presented to the governing board a draft convention for the protection of artistic and scientific institutions and historic monuments which is to be transmitted to the Governments for consideration and which is to be signed on April 14th, 1935, or earlier. This draft convention is based on the Roerich pact, but is limited to the republics of the American continent. It provides that such monuments shall be considered neutral in time of war and shall be protected by special insignia.

Ideas of Bolívar.—The Board also adopted a resolution requesting the cooperation of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace in the compilation and publication of documents tending to give effect to the ideas of Bolívar relative to the formation of an American league of nations and the creation of a permanent inter-American court of justice. This compilation is to contain the views expressed by Bolívar and of other later statesmen and juriconsults, as well as the conclusions of inter-American conferences. The Governments of the American Republics are requested to forward to the Pan American Union all material of this nature that they may have in their archives.

Broadcasting stations.—The Director General submitted to the Governing Board a report dealing with the resolution adopted at

Montevideo relative to the erection of broadcasting stations to be utilized in the dissemination of inter-American programs. The resolution recommends that each Government erect a short-wave radio station that shall be used in broadcasting programs of the music, literature, art, and other cultural achievements to the other nations of the American continent. The Director General was authorized to transmit this report to the Governments and to take such action as might be necessary to give effect to this particular resolution.

Other reports.—Reports were also submitted to the Board by the Permanent Committees on Inter-American Bibliography and on the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse. These reports outline a program of action intended to give effect to the resolutions on these subjects adopted at the Seventh International Conference of American States.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

The following selected list is compiled from books and pamphlets received during the past month:

Del pasado limeño, [por] Ismael Portal. Lima, Librería e imprenta Gil, s.a., 1932. 215 p. illus., ports. 22 cm.

Lima religiosa (1535-1924), [por] Ismael Portal. Lima, Librería e imprenta Gil, 1924. 420 p. illus., ports. 24½ cm.

Nativa, novela histórica, [por] Eduardo Acevedo Díaz. Montevideo, Claudio García, 1931. t. 1: 218 p. 19 cm.

José Enrique Rodó, [por] Gonzalo Zaldumbide. Montevideo, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 197 p. 20 cm.

Los últimos motivos de Proteo, [por] José Enrique Rodó. Manuscritos hallados en la mesa de trabajo del maestro. . . . Montevideo, José Ma. Serrano; Buenos Aires, Librería de Jesús Menéndez, 1932. 342 p. port. facsim. 21 cm.

Pan-América?, [por] Federico Orcajo Acuña. . . . Montevideo [Imp. de la Editorial Albatros L.] 1933. 113 p. 20 cm.

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PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

THE NEW CONSTITUTIONAL LAW OF CUBA

The Provisional Government of Cuba issued on February 3, 1934, a Constitutional Law which revokes the constitution of February 21, 1901, and the amendments of May 11, 1928. The law, which went into effect immediately, was signed by Provisional President Carlos Mendieta and the members of the Council of Secretaries. It will remain in force until the drafting of a new constitution by the Constituent Convention; this body, according to article 93, is to meet within 60 days after the general election to be called by the Provisional President not later than December 31, 1934.

The preamble to the law states that, although there are those who would have liked to see the original constitution restored, many of its provisions are out of date and others inapplicable to the needs and duties of the Provisional Government. Therefore that Government "thought it more suitable to discuss, agree upon, and promulgate constitutional provisions which, without departing any more than necessary from the basic principles of our fundamental organization, should adapt it to the needs of the present moment, increasing also the efficacy of the exercise of individual rights."

While the Constitutional Law follows in the main the Constitution of 1901, it does contain several departures from former provisions. Perhaps the most far-reaching is to be found in chapter XVIII, which reads: "The Provisional Government is bound to respect and fulfill the international obligations legally contracted by previous governments, as well as all treaties in force. Without prejudice to the latter it is to negotiate the modification of the permanent treaty between Cuba and the United States to establish the relations between both nations on a basis of absolute equality" (article 99).

Two other radical changes have to do with the position of women: "A Cuban woman married to a foreigner shall always be considered a Cuban citizen" (article 7), and "All Cubans, of both sexes, shall have the right to vote and to hold office" (article 39).

The rights of the people are further safeguarded by the statement that no suspension of constitutional guaranties may be made for a period of more than 60 days, nor may the suspension be extended for periods of more than 60 days each (article 41), and by the provision that the use of arms against a prisoner trying to escape will make the author of the crime responsible before the law (article 16).

Since the present Government is temporary in character, the law deals with the functions of government in a manner designed to meet the situation. The sixth chapter (article 45) reads: "The public power is exercised by (1) the Provisional President of the Republic; (2) the Council of Secretaries; (3) the Council of State; (4) the Judicial Power; (5) other organizations and authorities established by legislation."

The requirements for the Presidency under the Provisional Government are similar to those under the old constitution, with the exception that the age limit has been lowered from 40 to 35 years, and no member of the Army or Navy, nor anyone who has served in either within 5 years, is eligible. His powers and duties are also similar to those entrusted to the President under the former constitution; legislative powers in the Provisional Government are assumed by the Councils of Secretaries and of State. Since there is no vice president, in case the presidency should be vacant the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court shall assume the post temporarily until an electoral college, composed of the members of the Councils of Secretaries and of State, under the chairmanship of the president of the latter, can meet to elect his successor.

The Council of Secretaries shall consist of not more than 17 members: The Provisional President of the Republic; the Secretaries of State, Justice, Interior and War, the Treasury, Public Works, Agriculture, Commerce and Industry, Labor, Public Instruction and Fine Arts, Health and Public Welfare, and Communications; the President of the Council of State; the Mayor of Habana; a Secretary to the President, who shall act in the same capacity to the council, and who shall have voice but no vote in the proceedings; and not more than two secretaries without portfolio, if and when the council agrees to their appointment. All members of the Cabinet must be Cuban citizens at least 25 years of age and in full enjoyment of their civil and political rights.

To the council falls the duties usually entrusted to the Legislature, such as to issue whatever decree laws may be necessary, approve treaties and the budget, ratify Presidential appointments, raise loans, impose taxes, and issue money. The council will be convoked by the Provisional President, either on his own initiative or at the behest of four members. All decree laws and other measures issued by the President must be countersigned by the secretary of the corresponding department, who will be personally responsible for measures appearing over his signature.

The Council of State, the other new body established by the Organic Law, is to consist of not fewer than 50 nor more than 80 members, and is to include representatives of the revolutionary organiza-

tions, agricultural, industrial, commercial, and labor interests, and the press. The president, vice presidents, and secretaries of this council are to be appointed by the Provisional President with the approval of the Council of Secretaries. To be eligible for the Council of State, one must be a Cuban citizen at least 25 years old, in full enjoyment of civil and political rights, and not holding any remunerative Government position. Exception to the latter provision may be made in the case of professorships won by competitive examination before the appointment.

The duties of the council are to form part of the electoral college, advise the Provisional President and the Council of Secretaries on all matters called to its attention, recommend legislation, and draft bills on electoral legislation and on the census, two measures which cannot be passed by the Council of Secretaries until after consultation with the Council of State. The council will be considered constituted after the appointment of 50 members, and will begin its meetings after convocation by its president.

The chapter on immunity, a subject not mentioned in the previous constitution, provides that the Provisional President and the members of the Councils of Secretaries and of State shall not be liable for the opinions and views expressed in the exercise of their duties. Members of both councils may be deprived of liberty only with the authorization of the body to which they belong, except when caught in the act of committing an offense against the law. (Article 74).

The chapter on the Judicial Power follows, in the main, the provisions in the Constitution of 1901. In article 78, dealing with the duties of the Supreme Court, there is a new function, "To have jurisdiction over and judge offenses of common character committed by the Provisional President and the members of the Council of Secretaries during the holding of their respective offices in the form which is determined by articles 51, 62, and 63 of this constitutional law." The administration of the courts, discussed in articles 85-88, is also material not included in the first constitution.

The terms of the present Provisional President, or his successor in the Provisional Government, and of the members of the Council of State will end on a date to be set by the Constituent Convention. The Provisional President is to put into execution with the briefest possible delay the census law and electoral legislation which the Council of Secretaries, on the advice of the Council of State, shall approve. The purpose of these laws is to prepare the meeting of a Constituent Convention, which will draft and adopt the new constitution of the Republic, within four months following the inauguration of its sessions; the constitution is then to be promulgated by the Provisional President within 10 days after its passage.

This constitutional law may be amended within 60 days after its promulgation, but subsequently it may be amended only by the agreement of both two-thirds of the total membership of the Council of Secretaries and two-thirds of the total membership of the Council of State.

The constitutional law ends with 14 general and temporary provisions designed to smooth the transition from the former constitution to the new one.—B.N.

INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITIONS IN ARGENTINA AND CHILE

The countries of Latin America are watching with interest and enthusiasm all evidence of progress in their national industrial development. Two national industrial expositions have recently been held in South America, on opposite sides of the Andes.

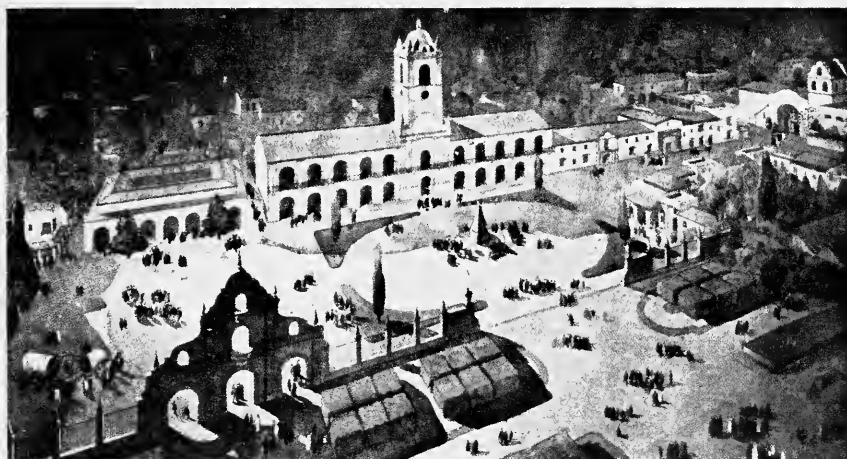
The first was opened on December 16, 1933, by President Justo of Argentina. It was held in Palermo, a suburb of Buenos Aires, on the grounds of the Argentine Rural Society. These had been especially arranged for the exhibition and the setting proved most effective. The main entrance gate represented a factory in operation, and in the exposition precincts many new buildings had been erected and the exterior of most of those already built had been remodeled along Spanish colonial lines. One section represented the Buenos Aires of olden days, with duplicates of the former "Cabildo", an old church, the historic Pueyrredón house, a typical 1841 fair, and other structures of similar interest. Antiques in which great interest was shown included a stage coach and one of the high-wheeled carts in which passengers from ocean-going ships used to be taken ashore before the harbor was dredged and piers were constructed.

The exhibits were well arranged, generally by industry. Several complete factories were installed, of which the most spectacular was the textile exhibit, the carding, the spinning, and the weaving machines attracting especial attention. In another building complete machinery for making shoes, especially the *alpargatas* (rope-soled canvas shoes worn by laborers) so common in Argentina, was installed, while in a third visitors could watch every stage of the printing of miniature copies of a popular evening newspaper. Several firms with headquarters in the United States have branch factories in the Republic and their displays, which ranged from cement to food products, compared favorably with others exhibited.

One building was devoted to booths occupied by displays from various geographical sections of the country. At the opening of the exhibit only two sections were occupied, by the Provinces of Corrientes and La Rioja, respectively. The former showed fruits, chiefly

oranges, and small, hand-made articles of native woods; the latter had a slightly more varied exhibit, including blankets, coarse textiles, wines, and pottery.

While a few of the industries date from colonial times—the patriots of 1810 used to hold their meetings in the soap factory of Hipólito Vieytes, a revolutionary leader—their development along modern lines is of comparatively recent date. The lack of national raw materials has been a handicap in some, such as steel and hardware, but in spite of such handicaps individual enterprises have prospered. The domestic manufacture of agricultural implements has increased notably in recent years. In other types of industry, where Argentina



Courtesy of "Revista de Arquitectura", Buenos Aires.

THE NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION IN ARGENTINA.

Exhibits in the exposition, which was held from December 1933 to the end of March 1934, were housed in reproductions of colonial buildings. Notable among them was the Cabildo, or City Hall, shown in the center background.

produces the raw material, machinery often has to be imported. There was a display of traveling bags, saddles, harnesses, belts, and similar articles, for example, made in the country from native leather but with foreign tools. The display of electrical appliances by a local electric company included an air-conditioning machine, whose value was practically demonstrated by having the room in which it was shown air conditioned. The building trades and manufacturers of soaps and perfumery, foods, tobacco, furniture, glass, and wines, beers, and soft drinks were among the exhibitors who contributed toward making the exposition impressive for variety and for the quality of the finished products.

The inauguration ceremony took place in the open-air theatre in the exposition grounds. Señor Luis Colombo, the president of the

Argentine Industrial Union, under whose auspices the affair was organized, explained its purposes and antecedents; Señor Luis Duhau, the Minister of Agriculture and Promotion, spoke on the importance of industrial development to the economic life of the nation; and President Justo made a brief address. The President then touched a button and, to the shrieks of a siren, the buildings, streets, and fountains were all illuminated and the machinery in the different exhibits was set in motion.

According to figures published in *Comments on Argentine Trade*, January, 1934, the production of Argentina's 20,696 factories in 1933 reached a value of 2,687,000,000 paper pesos. Workers to the number of 380,066 were employed in manufacturing industry, which represented an investment of 4,877,000,000 paper pesos.



Courtesy of "Revista de Arquitectura", Buenos Aires.

OLD CHURCH AT THE INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION.

Argentina's "Century of Progress" illustrated the development of industry from the handicrafts of colonial days.

This is the sixth exhibition of the kind to be held in Argentina. On January 15, 1877, the first Exposition of Argentine Industries was opened; the first Continental Exposition was held five years later, with exhibits from Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Venezuela to give it an international character; the National Exposition was held in 1898; the Centenary Exposition, the first to receive Government aid, was held in 1910; and the Exhibition of Argentine Industry, visited by more than 2,000,000 persons, was held from December 1924 to March 31, 1925.

On February 3, 1934, the National Exposition of Industries of the Republic of Chile was opened in Valparaiso, its chief seaport. The exhibits were installed in the grounds of the Santa María Foundation, a well-endowed trade school for boys which has excellent buildings and equipment. There, under the general direction of the architects responsible for the Foundation buildings, a miniature city, planned as



A BUSINESS STREET IN VALPARAISO, CHILE.

Visitors to the National Exposition of Industries, which opened in February at Valparaíso, were astonished at the variety and development of Chilean industries evidenced by the exhibits.



MACHINE SHOP OF THE
SANTA MARÍA FOUNDATION, VALPARAISO.

The spacious buildings and grounds of this fine technical school for boys were occupied by the National Industrial Exposition.

a whole, sprang into being. In contrast to the picturesque reproduction of colonial aspects that was a feature of the Buenos Aires exposition, the prevailing architecture in Valparaíso was "modern"—a promise of the future. The President of Chile, cabinet members, and local officials took part in the opening ceremonies.

The exposition took on added significance from the fact that it was the first one to be really national, instead of regional, in scope. The variety of industries exhibited and the quality of the products gave to many people a new conception of the potentialities of the country. In an editorial the day following the opening, *El Mercurio* of Santiago said:

No one would have thought that there was still so much industrial production hidden from the eyes of the general public, such intelligent manufacturing activity, all due to Chilean capital and efforts, to create substitutes for the merchandise formerly imported from Europe and America. There, in the striking and attractive pavilions on the terraces of the Santa María Foundation, are to be found such products, a few of Chilean industry of long standing, but the majority creations of recent years under the spur of the depression: The admirable works of state organizations—railways, the Army, the Navy, aviation; multiple and interesting products of the chemical industries based on the inexhaustible materials hidden in the soil of the northern provinces; the manufacture of cereals, wool, leather, hemp, lumber, dairy products, wines, fruits, and other excellent products of the central and southern industries of the Republic, . . . widely varied manifestations of an activity of unsuspected proportions and intrinsic value. . . .

The depression has brought us, besides much harm, one great benefit: . . . it has shown us that a young and strong nation, occupying a land full of potential wealth, finds new sources of production when painful circumstances exhaust the old ones; it has disclosed that Chile is capable of living without dependence on the nitrate industry and with the saner and more solid riches—because they are not the gifts of chance—of its agricultural and its manufacturing industries, which will give it economic independence in a not far distant future.

More than 150 stands were constructed, in which over 200 manufacturers and business men displayed their wares. The exhibits of Government activities aroused much enthusiasm; besides those mentioned in the editorial cited above, there was great interest in the display of one of the Bureaus of the Department of Commerce which presented agricultural products exported from Chile, including fresh and canned fruit, vegetables, wines, and liquors, with graphs showing the remarkable development of that branch of production during recent years.

The clothing industry, one learned at the exhibition, has the largest number of employees of any industry in Chile, since of the 296,000 persons working in national industries, 95,000 are employed in the clothing trades. Of these 25,000 are men and 70,000 women.

The display of the sugar refinery of Viña del Mar, a suburb of Valparaíso, was noteworthy for the variety of byproducts shown. There were samples not only of different classes of sugar, but also of liquors, ether and etherin, perfumes and colognes, syrups, and similar products.

Industrial education was also featured at the exposition. The Santa María Foundation had a well-organized pavilion, with exhibits of wrought and cast metal, cabinetwork, and furniture, all the work of the pupils. It will be remembered that the wealthy philanthropist Federico Santa María, who died in 1925, left his considerable fortune to create a foundation which should establish in Valparaíso a school to provide technical education for boys of limited opportunities. The school opened in December 1931, with the establishment of the trade courses, and the trustees plan to offer other more advanced courses as the students are prepared for them. The public seemed especially interested in the posters showing the course of study and the internal organization of the institution. The Trade School of Santiago, one of the oldest on the continent, also had an exhibit which won interest and praise. This school, established in 1849 with 25 students, had in 1933 an enrollment of 734 in the regular courses, 85 in special courses, 256 in night classes, and 359 in Sunday classes.—B.N.

BRAZIL ASSUMES CONTROL OF ALL EXPEDITIONS TO THE INTERIOR

In Decree No. 22698, published in the *Diario Oficial* of January 26, 1934, the Chief of the Provisional Government of Brazil granted to the Ministry of Agriculture supervision over all expeditions undertaken in the Republic, whether official, private, or foreign, and irrespective of their purpose. The decree was deemed necessary because many expeditions, often undertaken without the knowledge of the Government and with insufficient preparation, have brought unnecessary suffering to their members and concern to the Government. The measure was designed to protect the Government, the members of expeditions, and the natural, historical, legendary, and artistic monuments of the country.

Therefore all foreign expeditions proposing to visit the interior of the country must apply to the Ministry of Agriculture, through the Ministry of Foreign Relations, for the requisite permission. The application must be filed at least 30 days beforehand, and contain full information as to plans and objectives. Every duly authorized expedition must include a Brazilian member, appointed by the Government. Whenever an expedition is considered to be of national interest, the Brazilian Government will defray the expenses of its representative; otherwise they must be met by the sponsors of the affair and the necessary amount deposited in the National Treasury.

No botanical, zoological, mineralogical or paleontological specimen may be taken out of the country except when there are duplicates in

one of the Scientific Institutes of the Ministry of Agriculture or in the National Museum, and all scientific material gathered by foreign missions must be equally divided between the Government of Brazil and the expedition. No natural, historical, or artistic monument may leave the country without special permission from the Brazilian Government. Authenticated copies of all reports, sketches, or photographs made by any expedition must be submitted to the Government, which will put them in its archives, thus assuring expedition members of all copyrights.

The decree was signed May 11, 1933, and on July 28 the Minister of Agriculture issued the necessary regulations. A supervisory Council of Artistic and Scientific Expeditions in Brazil is established to function under the General Bureau of Scientific Research. The council will be composed of an assistant chief of the Institute of Botany (botany); an assistant chief of the Geological and Mineralogical Institute of Brazil (geology, mineralogy, and paleontology); two professors of the National Museum (zoology, archaeology, and ethnography); a section chief of the Historical Museum (historical objects); a professor from the National School of Fine Arts (native and traditional art); the chief of the Bureau of Military Geography (topography and cinematography); and representatives of the Ministries of Foreign Relations and of the Treasury, who will act as liaison and consultive members.

Among other duties, the council is to inform the Government of requests for permits from expeditions desirous of operating in Brazilian territory; to supervise, directly or by means of delegates in the States, the activities of licensed expeditions and the exportation of the material mentioned in the decree; to estimate the deposit required to cover the expenses of the Brazilian member of the expedition; to pass on the fitness of expeditions or their members and the advisability of granting the required license as well as whether or not they are of national interest; to decide whether the purposes of the undertaking are of special interest to the country or of advantage to scientific and artistic bureaus of the Government or to institutions of public utility; to study the proposed itineraries, plans, and objectives; to nominate Government agents in the States; to issue instructions for operation to Government representatives; and to designate, in the case of an individual expedition, the institution which should direct and supervise the explorer.

All applications for permits must give the following information: the kind and nationality of the expedition; the name, nationality, and profession of each member; the itinerary, plans, and purpose; the name of the person responsible for the expedition and his substitute in case of accident; the maximum duration of the trip; the port of customs through which the expedition will leave the country; an

inventory of the baggage, objects for barter, and arms carried; and a statement that all members promise to obey the laws of the country.

Recognized scientists working under the auspices of a Brazilian scientific institution will not be required to apply for a license.

If the expedition is considered of national interest, the Government may, in addition to defraying the expenses of its own representative, grant passage, transportation and other assistance, including pecuniary aid. The same concession may be made to individual scientists of recognized standing.

Duplicates of specimens collected in the interior, which the council decides to add to Government collections, must be placed in national scientific institutions. The export of unique or very rare specimens is prohibited, but in the case of such specimens the Government will furnish copies, models, photographs, designs, etc., to those interested.

Professional exporters of botanical, zoological, mineralogical, paleontological, archaeological, historical, or artistic specimens must register with the Council.

These regulations are to be revised at the end of one year as experience shows to be wise.—B.N.

ARGENTINE PUBLIC WORKS AND HIGHWAY PROGRAM

A decree, signed by the President of Argentina on January 18, 1934, authorizes the expenditure of 140,489,380 Argentine paper pesos on public works for 1934 (exclusive of highways), or \$1,190,769 paper pesos above the similar expenditure in 1933. The program, as summarized in *Commerce Reports* for March 17, includes the construction of Government buildings, schools, railways, irrigation sanitation, and drainage projects, hydroelectric plants, port works, military barracks, and flying fields, and various other projects of a related nature.

The 1934 program of public works includes only those projects that have been already approved by the Argentine Congress, but for which funds hitherto have not been available, and is confined mainly to those most likely to effect speedy relief for unemployment. To this end, the expenditures will be distributed among the various classifications of works, as follows:

	<i>Paper pesos</i>
Buildings.....	20, 292, 144
Irrigation.....	9, 789, 700
Navigation and ports.....	22, 782, 000
Work on the Riachuelo.....	2, 500, 000
State railways.....	40, 600, 000
Sanitary works.....	32, 963, 452
Ministry of War.....	9, 274, 300
Ministry of Marine.....	1, 937, 784
Ministry of Agriculture.....	350, 000
Total.....	140, 489, 380

Of the above total, it is estimated that approximately 66,000,000 pesos will be spent on salaries and wages, 42,000,000 on materials produced in Argentina, 10,000,000 on sundry expenses, and the remainder probably on foreign materials.

From other sources it is reported that within the last three years there have been completed a 200-mile metal highway from Buenos Aires to Mar del Plata, the fashionable summer resort on the coast, a 50-mile highway to Luján, and a network of concrete highways from the distant suburbs to the capital. Good roads beget more good roads, and it is therefore not surprising that the Government has embarked on an extensive plan for highway construction.

A separate program for the construction of new highways, approved on January 25, was described in *Commerce Reports* for March 10. It is to be carried out during the next two years, and will involve the expenditure by the National Government of 177,440,000 pesos, and the employment of 70,000 persons. In addition, 15,000,000 pesos will be spent for repair work, and 52,000,000 pesos will be contributed by the various provinces; included in the total sum are projects started in 1933.

The main features of this project are trunk roads leading out from Buenos Aires to Bahia Blanca, to Cordoba, and to Corrientes; it also includes the construction of numerous minor roads and bridges. The project will affect each of the 14 Provinces and the 10 national Territories, including Tierra del Fuego, where 500,000 pesos has been allotted for roads and 50,000 pesos for a bridge.

Of the total amount appropriated, the Government estimates that only 8,000,000 pesos will be spent outside of Argentina, most of it for steel reinforcements and the balance for paving materials and road-building machinery. The entire appropriation will be apportioned approximately as follows: Labor, salaries, and cartage, 118,000,000 pesos; local materials, including production labor, 16,500,000 pesos; foreign materials and equipment, 8,000,000 pesos; railway freights, 13,000,000 pesos; sundry expenses, financial services, and contractor's profits, 21,500,000 pesos.

The plan provides for an expenditure of 133,444,000 pesos by the National Roads Board over a 3-year period (including 1933), to which will be added 44,000,000 pesos of "Federal aid" funds. The Board now has available about 74,000,000 pesos; it is intended to raise the balance by a bond issue and by the assignment of Federal funds previously allotted to the Provinces of Santa Fe, San Luis, and Jujuy. Construction begun in 1933 is represented by 43,000,000 pesos. On the remaining roads it is expected that bids will be called for within the next 3 months, since practically all preliminary surveys have been completed.

CENTENARY OF JOSÉ GABRIEL GARCÍA, HISTORIAN OF THE
DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

On January 13, 1934, the Dominican Republic observed the one hundredth anniversary of the birth of José Gabriel García. An editorial in *La Opinión*, Santo Domingo, on that date, paid tribute to him as follows:

Today is the centenary of the birth of our great national historian, Don José Gabriel García. García was born in the capital on a day like this in 1834, and died here in 1910. While still quite young he began his literary, journalistic, and political activities; he contributed frequently to almost all the newspapers, and was a member of civic and cultural societies. He held the highest offices in the Government with the single exception of the Presidency of the Republic, a position to which, as far as is known, he never aspired.

From his youth, too, García specialized in matters of history and his first writings in this field were important articles which appeared in the newspapers of the capital. Stimulated by the success and applause which greeted his early studies, García devoted himself wholly to the arduous task of investigating the past of the Dominican people and writing our history as a nation.

An arduous task we have said, but we might have used an even stronger expression. In this country the only archives containing documents about colonial life were ecclesiastical ones which could be used in discussing only a single aspect of the general history of Santo Domingo. García did not have the means to go to Rome, Spain, France, and England to study documents of prime importance there, nor did the administrations during the period when he was best fitted for the work trouble to send missions to Europe to copy such documents, being too engrossed with the business of keeping themselves in power. Therefore, in beginning his work and dealing with the colonial period, García utilized the books written by Spanish chroniclers and ecclesiastical officials relating to the first two centuries of the colony, and the few works which were at hand to cover the points relating to the third century. The *Historia* left by Don Antonio del Monte y Tejada was a great help to him, but it dealt only with events preceding the reconquest. García had then to fall back on his own resources in writing the history of the first period of independence under Núñez de Cáceres, the Haitian occupation, independence, the annexation, the restoration, and the history of the Republic until the end of the 6-year term of Báez.

Besides his *General History*, García left other specialized works of a historical character, such as *Memorias para la historia de Quisqueya*, *Rasgos biográficos de dominicanos celebres*, *Partes oficiales de operaciones durante la guerra dominico-haitiana*, *Coincidencias históricas*, and

Nuevas coincidencias históricas. All these books, unfortunately, have been out of print for many years and there are few who possess them. It is also said that García left many unpublished notebooks, at present in the hands of relatives who guard them jealously.

If del Monte y Tejada is the father of Dominican history, García is the outstanding historian. Without him, we should not have known a single word of our country's past between 1821 and 1874, that is, the very period in which the nationalistic Dominican spirit was born. We should also know only from tradition how the present Dominican Republic came into being.

The work of García has, then, the greatest interest for the Dominican nation of today. Our political comprehension, insofar as it has been dependent upon history, has been formed by the pages of José Gabriel García. García was not, then, simply a writer of historical narrative. His historical labors were animated by a noble spirit of liberality and patriotism, a spirit sincere and convincing, because García's public life was always distinguished for its liberal and patriotic qualities.

García's history is deficient in many respects, especially in the discussion of the middle period of the colonial epoch; the study, which has now been made, of many documents of the archives in Spain and France, has brought about a correction of these deficiencies. It is also true that it has been claimed that he was somewhat prejudiced in the section of his history dealing with the events following independence.

But in any event, as Don Americo Lugo has said, the work of García is a masterpiece of patience, understanding, and patriotism.

Therefore, the centenary of José Gabriel García is an occurrence which arouses gratitude and admiration in the national spirit, because the national spirit has José Gabriel García to thank for its very existence.



CENTER OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES IN ARGENTINA

October 4, 1933, was the tenth anniversary of the death of Estanislao S. Zeballos, formerly one of the leading statesmen and diplomats of Argentina, and a member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration at The Hague. He was a native of Rosario and had been dean of the Law School of the Universidad Nacional del Litoral there. Special commemorative services were held by the School of Economics, Business, and Political Science of the university, the most important feature being the formal organization of the Estanislao S. Zeballos Center of International Studies.

The establishment of such a center had been planned more than three years before, but circumstances had prevented the earlier reali-

zation of the project. It is to be closely allied with the School of Economics, Business, and Political Science, which has offered the use of its building to the new center, but will be independent as far as organization, research, and conclusions are concerned.

According to the by-laws adopted on that occasion, the center was organized to promote research on matters and doctrines of international interest, giving preference to the position taken by Argentina in international law and policies; to study current international problems on the agenda of congresses, conferences, and treaties; and to establish connections and cooperate with similar institutes, associations, and centers. The studies completed at the center will be read at public meetings and be made available in publications, lectures, or courses. There are to be three classes of membership: active members—retired diplomatic and consular officers and eminent authorities in law, history, or international questions who apply for it; associate members—university students who have completed courses in subjects related to research under way; and corresponding members—persons or institutions outstanding for their interest in international questions.

The officers of the "Centro" are two in number, the director and the secretary. They are to be elected from among the active members and will hold office for one year. Dr. Raúl Rodríguez Araya was chosen the first director, and Dr. Ricardo J. Siri secretary.



LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY AND LITERARY NEWS

Literary prizes in Brazil and Mexico.—The Francisco Alves prizes of the Academia Brasileira de Letras were awarded on June 29, 1933, the sixteenth anniversary of the death of Alves. In the first group, for scholars in the Portuguese language, the first prize was awarded to Antenor Nascentes for *Dicionário etimológico da língua portuguesa*, and the third prize to Benedito Sampaio, for *Elementos de gramática portuguesa*. No second prize was announced. In the second group, for works on primary education, the first prize was awarded to Sud Menucci for *A crise brasileira de educação*; the second prize to Manuel Bomfim for *Cultura e educação do povo brasileiro*; and the third prize to Cristóvão Camargo for *O grave problema da educação popular no Brasil*.

Other prizes awarded by the academy during 1932 were:

POETRY: Honorable mention to Teodorico de Almeida for his book *Ouro, insenso e mirra*.

FICTION: First prize to José Geraldo Vieira for *A mulher que fugiu de Sodoma*; honorable mention to Alírio Meira Wanderley for *Sol Criminoso*, and to Ribeiro Couto for *Cabocla*.

SHORT STORIES: First prize to Martins de Oliveira for *No país das carnaúbas*; honorable mention to Berilo Neves for *A mulher e o diabo*, to Hildebrando de Lima for *Marés de amor*, and to Cristóvão de Camargo for *O inventor da apendicite*.

DRAMA: First prize to Jurací Camargo for *O bobo do rei*; honorable mention to Benjamin de Lima for *Boa noite* and to Paulo de Magalhães for *O interventor*.

EDUCATION: First prize to Leoni Kaseff for *Educação dos supernormais*; honorable mention to Jônatas Serrano and F. Venâncio Filho for their *Cinema e educação* and to J. Canuto Mendes de Almeida for *Cinema contra cinema*.

The Ramos Paz prizes of the Academy were awarded to José Francisco de Araujo Lima for *Amazônia—a terra e o homem*, to Bastos de Avila for *No pacoral de Carimbé*, to João Filipe de Saboia Ribeiro for *Rincões dos frutos de ouro*, to Odilo Costa Filho for *Analecta*; and honorable mention was given to João Felizardo for *Romantismo*.

The Government of Mexico enacted a decree on January 24, 1934, which creates an annual fund of 2,000 pesos for national prizes to be awarded for the best works in the fields of literature, drama, scientific investigation, and journalism, respectively. Only Mexicans are eligible to enter the competition. In awarding the prizes consideration will be given to the spirit and purpose of the work, as well as to technical excellence. The Department of Education is charged with drafting the regulations for awarding the prizes.

Colombian literary monthly.—The National Library of Colombia is to be congratulated upon the appearance of the first issue of *Senderos*. This is an illustrated monthly magazine which contains articles on the art and literature of Colombia, as well as book reviews and minutes of the meetings of the Academia Colombiana. Dr. Samper Ortega, the director, outlines the work of the National Library in Bogotá. There will be a broadcasting station in the new library building which will be completed soon. Lectures, book reviews, and information of a general character will be broadcast. He also plans to send to remote sections a talking picture apparatus, which can be transported on muleback where necessary. The National Library will prepare the lectures. Dr. Samper Ortega has been working on these interesting enterprises for three years.

Library methods.—The Biblioteca Nacional of Argentina has published two pamphlets on library methods. They are *Índice del catálogo metódico en que se presenta el sistema de clasificación adoptado en el establecimiento* and *Antecedentes, sistema de clasificación e índice metódico de los catálogos*. Both contain the scheme for classification which is used in the National Library, and the latter pamphlet includes, in addition, a treatise on cataloging and classifying the National Library.

Eusebio Aveiro Lugo, director of the library and archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Paraguay, has prepared and published a report on the reorganization of that library, entitled *Organización de biblioteca*, which is in part a brief essay on classification and cataloging.

Chilean periodicals.—Under the direction of Pbto. Alejandro Vicuña Pérez, director of the Biblioteca nacional de Chile, the library published a list of Chilean periodicals and newspapers, entitled *Publicaciones periódicas chilenas*, which have been received in the library and are available to the public. The compilation is arranged both alphabetically and geographically, and cites the date of the first issue and subscription price.

Libraries in Guayaquil.—Statistics of libraries in Guayaquil, Ecuador, show that 35,458 people used the municipal library during the first six months of 1933. Of this number only 1,085 were women.

The following table shows the contents of the several libraries as of June 30, 1933.

Name of library	Books	Pamphlets	Manuscripts	Periodicals	Broad-sides	Total	Readers, Jan 1–June 30, 1933
Municipal.....	31,034	109	807	380,994	1,511	414,455	35,458
Autores nacionales "Carlos A. Rolando".....	3,525	7,538	-----	120,500	12,000	143,563	561
Universidad de Guayaquil.....	4,816	1,012	-----	6,173	-----	12,001	1,871
Colegio nacional "Vicente Rocafuerte".....	7,746	2,771	-----	7,471	-----	17,988	11,168
Pedagógica de la Dirección de estudios.....	1,900	-----	-----	-----	-----	1,900	499
Asociación de empleados.....	1,740	403	-----	2,733	-----	4,876	431
Sociedad general de empleados.....	646	-----	-----	10,524	-----	11,170	1,810
Totals.....	51,407	11,833	807	528,395	13,511	605,953	51,798



NECROLOGY

Dr. Claudio Williman.—An ex-President of Uruguay, Dr. Claudio Williman, died at his home in Montevideo on February 9, 1934, at the age of 71. Dr. Williman was identified throughout his life with education. He had taught in the Ateneo of Uruguay, the Sociedad Universitario, the Military School, and the university, of which he was twice rector (president), before entering public life. In 1904 he was appointed Minister of Government, and later was given also the portfolio of War and Navy. Three years afterwards, he was elected President for the four-year term 1907–11. The outstanding event in international affairs during his presidency was the negotiation of a treaty with Brazil whereby the nations assumed joint control over the waters of Lake Merim and the Yaguarón River; the exercise of this codominion has been a close bond of union between the two Republics ever since. During his administration a great impetus was given to all phases of education, from the primary schools, which increased greatly in number, through the university, which underwent a thorough reorganization; many important public works were also undertaken and completed. At the close of his term, Dr. Williman spent a year traveling in Europe, returning to continue his educational tasks. During his later years, Dr. Williman was also president of the Banco de la República and of the Ateneo of Montevideo.

Dr. Raúl A. Amador.—The death of the president of the Council of the League of Nations, Dr. Raúl A. Amador, occurred in Paris on March 23, 1934. Dr. Amador, who was 59 years old at the time of his death, was also chargé d'affaires of his country in Paris, where he had held diplomatic posts for many years. Dr. Amador, the son of the first President of Panama, was well known in the United States, for he received his medical degree from Columbia University, served in the United States Army Medical Corps during the Spanish-American War, and did pioneer work in the campaign against yellow fever. For two years, from 1905–07, he was consul-general of Panama in New York.



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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



SANTA RITA DOCKS, RECIFE, BRAZIL

JUNE

1934

MEXICO NICARAGUA PANAMA GUATEMALA

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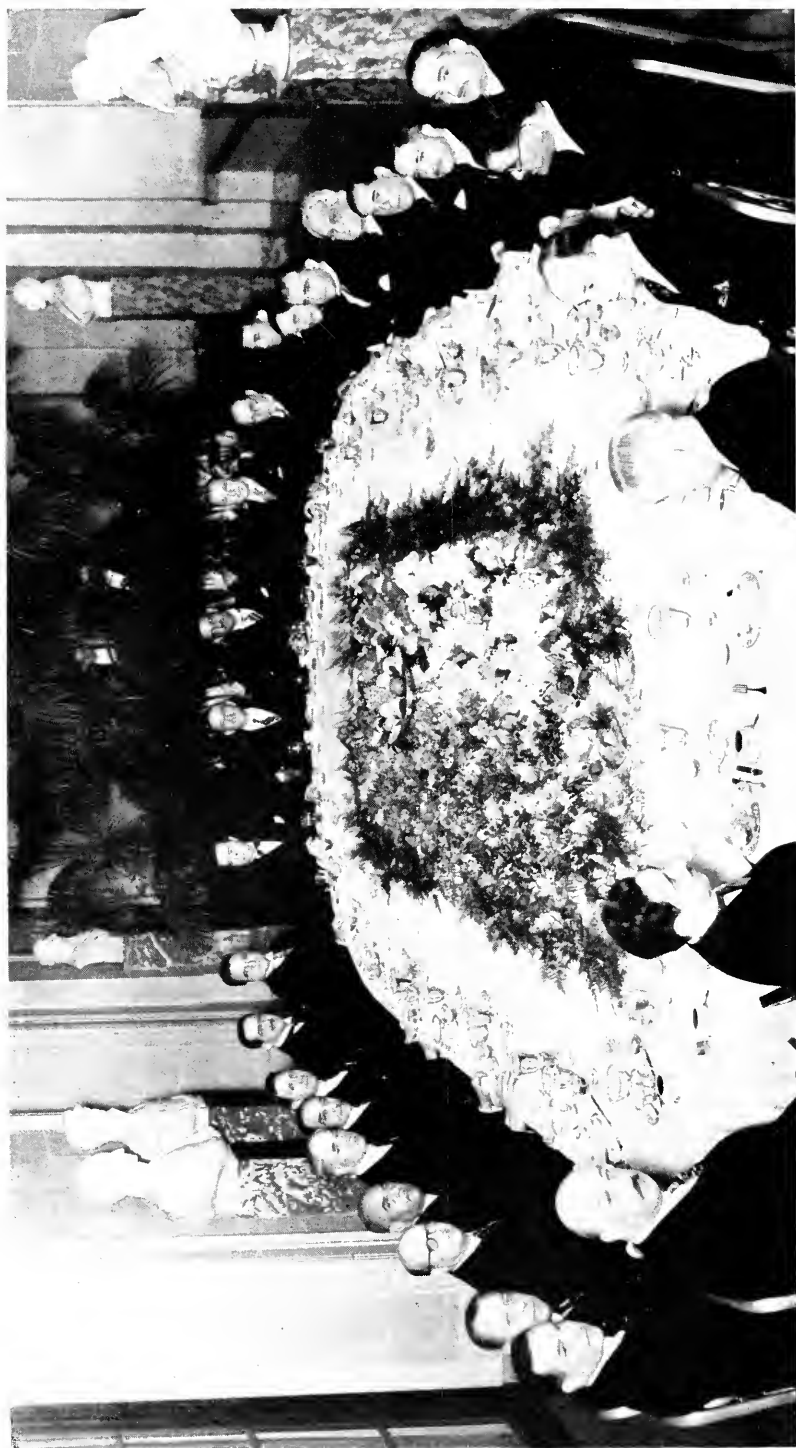
THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

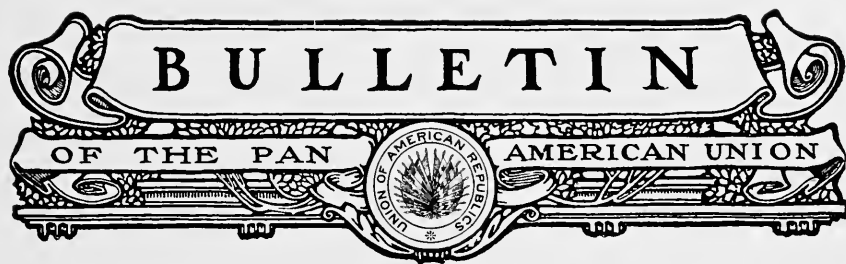
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LUNCHEON IN HONOR OF THE PRESIDENT OF HAITI AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

President Sténio Vincent was the honor guest at a luncheon given by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union in the Gallery of Patriots and Flags, April 18, 1934.



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PRESIDENT VINCENT CONFERS WITH PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT

ON March 22, 1934, His Excellency Sténio Vincent, President of Haiti, sailed from Port-au-Prince for a month's sojourn in the United States. He was accompanied by M. Lucien Hibbert, the Minister of Finance of Haiti, and M. Fequièrè. After a three weeks' unofficial visit in New York, President Vincent went to Washington on April 15 to discuss with President Roosevelt and other officials of the United States Government matters of mutual interest to the two countries.

President Vincent was accompanied from New York by M. Albert Blanchet, the Minister of Haiti in Washington, M. Hibbert, and the Hon. Norman Armour, United States Minister to Haiti. The party was received at the Union Station by the Secretary of State, the Hon. Cordell Hull, other high Government officials, and the Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe. A band rendered the national anthems of the two nations, and a troop of cavalry was on hand to escort the President and his party to their hotel.

The following morning President Vincent was formally received at the White House by President Roosevelt. After a luncheon in his honor, the President of Haiti spent the afternoon in conference with his host, after which the following joint statement was issued by the two chief executives:

We have had an opportunity to discuss in the most friendly and cordial manner the different problems arising in the relations between the Governments of the United States and of Haiti.

In connection with the departure of the United States marines from Haiti during the month of October next, as already provided in the Agreement of August 7, 1933, President Roosevelt intends to request authority from the Congress of the United States to make a gift to Haiti of a portion of the Marine Corps material which the Haitian Government feels would be useful to it.

We have exchanged views regarding the possibility of a commercial agreement which would increase the flow of goods between the two countries; and finally we have discussed a new form of financial administration which is satisfactory to our two Governments and which should be equally satisfactory to the holders of the bonds of the 1922 loan.

We are both inclined to the belief that the policy of the good neighbor which the Government of the United States is endeavoring to apply in its relations with the other American Republics will be signally manifested in the results which will be obtained from this exchange of views and from negotiations which are now taking place with a view to the practical application of the decisions reached in principle during our present conversations.

Certainly Haiti will now be in a position to look forward to her future with the greatest confidence.

In the evening the visitor was the honor guest at dinner of the Hon. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State.

On his second day in Washington, President Vincent went to Fort Myer, where appropriate honors were rendered, then proceeded to lay a wreath on the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier. At one o'clock he was received by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, in formal session. In welcoming the distinguished guest, Secretary of State Hull, Chairman of the Governing Board, said:

In the name of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, I have the honor, Mr. President, to extend to you a most cordial welcome. It is most fitting that on the occasion of your visit to Washington the members of the Governing Board should assemble to do you honor. During the struggle of the American Republics for independence, Haiti showed herself at all times ready and anxious to be of assistance to her sister nations. It was in Haiti that the Great Liberator, Bolivar, found constant encouragement as well as valuable material assistance. Your great predecessor, Pétion, was one of the first to uphold the sanctity of human rights and of individual freedom. The principles for which he stood are now coming to fruition in this organization of American republics dedicated to inter-American cooperation and good will.

In welcoming you to this institution, in which Haiti has always taken so honorable a part, we desire at the same time to formulate fervent wishes for the happiness and prosperity of the people of your country.

The vice chairman, His Excellency Dr. Pedro M. Arcaya, Minister of Venezuela, also said a few words of greeting. To this cordial welcome President Vincent responded felicitously as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN, GENTLEMEN:

It is natural that my first words should be sincere thanks for the splendid and most cordial welcome tendered today to the President of the Republic of Haiti by the official representatives of the American Republics here present and by the Hon. L. S. Rowe, whose intelligent devotion to the cause of inter-American good feeling is well known throughout our countries.

The existence of the Pan American Union has long borne witness to a desire for solidarity based on a spirit of constructive cooperation and mutual understanding between the nations of this hemisphere. It should be recognized that this spirit has been admirably affirmed in the "good neighbor" policy of President Roosevelt's administration and that this policy has found in the rational idealism of the Hon. Cordell Hull, his Secretary of State, the high-minded interpretation

necessary to produce, in the hearts of our respective peoples, the most effective and profound response. All this makes us hope that the Seventh International Conference of American States recently held at Montevideo, in whose success the chairman of the Governing Board played the leading part, has set the final mark on the sure road to respect for the rights and obligations of States in this part of the world.

I am happy to thank you, Mr. Secretary of State, in the name of the Government and people of Haiti.

You have been good enough to recall, Mr. Chairman, in the course of your remarks, historical events which are particularly dear to us. Yes, it was the hand of our great Pétion, frankly and loyally tendered in Haiti to the immortal Bolívar at the beginning of last century, which finally changed the destinies of South America, while we had already made a brilliant contribution to the cause of the liberty of nations when eight hundred sons of Haiti, led by Count d'Estaing, came to fight and to die at Savannah for the independence of this great Nation where in the last few days I have found such friendly and hearty hospitality.

If I recall these facts, it is because they well show the beginnings of Pan Americanism, at the very time when our respective countries were helping each other to obtain their common emancipation, and when the Monroe Doctrine, in its essentials, was formulating the principles which thenceforward defined the international status of the lands of the New Continent.

The Pan Americanism which has its source in our earliest life and which is, therefore, one with our most cherished traditions, cannot help growing stronger and stronger with the new impulses given it by the continued development of relations of all kinds destined to erect on firm foundations an unbroken future of peace and prosperity for the nations which share the sovereignty of the Americas.

It is with these ideas and these sentiments that I thank you once again, gentlemen, for a welcome which both inspires and honors me.

The ceremony was followed by a luncheon in the Gallery of Flags and Patriots of the Pan American Union. In addition to the guest of honor, the following members of the Governing Board and other officials were present: The Minister of Finance of Haiti, M. Lucien Hibbert; the United States Minister to Haiti, the Hon. Norman Armour; the Secretary to the Haitian Legation, M. Louis Mercier; the Secretary of State, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Chairman of the Governing Board; the Vice Chairman, Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya, Minister of Venezuela; the Ambassador of Peru, Señor Don Manuel de Freyre y Santander; the Ambassador of Brazil, Dr. R. de Lima e Silva; the Ambassador of Mexico, Dr. Fernando González Roa; the Ambassador of Cuba, Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling; the Minister of Guatemala, Dr. Adrián Recinos; the Minister of Colombia, Dr. Fabio Lozano; the Minister of the Dominican Republic, Señor Don Roberto Despradel; the Minister of Panama, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro; the Minister of Bolivia, Dr. Enrique Finot; the Minister of Paraguay, Dr. Enrique Bordenave; the Minister of Honduras, Dr. Miguel Paz Baraona; the Minister of Ecuador, Captian Colón Eloy Alfaro; the Minister of Haiti, M. Albert Blanchet; the Minister of Uruguay, Dr. José Richling; the Minister of Costa Rica, Señor Don Manuel González Zeledón; the Chargé d'Affaires of Chile, Dr. Emilio Edwards

Bello; the Chargé d'Affaires of Nicaragua, Dr. Henri De Bayle, and the Chargé d'Affaires of El Salvador, Señor Don Roberto D. Meléndez, the Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe; and the Assistant Director, Dr. E. Gil Borges.

After a visit to Mount Vernon in the afternoon, President Vincent attended a reception given in his honor by the Hon. James Clement Dunn, Special Assistant to the Secretary of State. During the afternoon he also called at the White House to say good-bye to President Roosevelt before his departure from Washington.

After a private dinner with the Minister of Haiti at the Haitian Legation, President Vincent left by train for New York, where he was to board the steamer the following day.

After President Vincent's return to his own country, the following telegrams were exchanged between the two chief executives:

(Translation)

PORT-AU-PRINCE,
April 23, 1934.

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT,
White House, Washington, D.C.

On my return to my country it is a peculiar pleasure for me to thank you once more for your incomparable reception at Washington, for that of the Government of the United States, and for the cordial remembrance which will always be mine of the splendid way in which I was received this morning by the people of Port-au-Prince, a reception which shows the confidence of the entire Haitian nation in the result of the fortunate conversations which I enjoyed with you on matters of interest to our two countries. My nation is convinced that our friendly interview cannot but fortify and further develop the excellent relations which exist between Haiti and the United States.

Your good friend,

(Signed) PRESIDENT VINCENT.

THE WHITE HOUSE,
April 24, 1934.

His Excellency Mr. STENIO VINCENT,
President of the Republic of Haiti, Port-au-Prince.

Your Excellency's courteous greeting has given me great pleasure. I am happy to feel that your brief pause in the United States proved as agreeable to you as it was to those of us who had the privilege of meeting you. I am confident that the friendship existing between Haiti and this country will be enhanced and strengthened as a result of our recent exchanges of views.

(Signed) FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT.

HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR DON JOSÉ RICHLING NEW MINISTER OF URUGUAY

THE Government of Uruguay recently appointed as its diplomatic representative before the Government of the United States Señor José Richling, its former Consul General in New York. Señor Richling, in presenting his letters of credence at the White House on April 25, said to President Roosevelt:

It has been my privilege to serve in another official capacity for many years in this country, which I have learned to admire and love. The unfailing cooperation and courteous assistance which I have received from everyone to whom I have had recourse for the better fulfillment of my task have been a source of deep gratification to me and constitute an association of memories which I value highly.

Because of these circumstances, I feel all the happier in being placed nearer the Government over which Your Excellency presides so wisely and so deservedly and I cherish the hope that Your Excellency's assistance will not fail me in the discharge of my duties, the very first of which is to deliver today to Your Excellency a message from the President of Uruguay with the expression of his every good wish for the prosperity and the greatness of the people of the United States and for the personal happiness of Your Excellency.

President Roosevelt replied:

Your appointment is especially gratifying in view of your many years of able service in the United States in another official capacity for your Government, during which, as you have so kindly said, you have learned to have affection and esteem for this country. It is pleasing to learn that during the fulfillment of your former official duties here you have met with cooperation and assistance and I am sure that you will find officials and private citizens eager to aid you in the accomplishment of your present mission.

Recently the attention of the United States was especially directed to your country by reason of the fact that it was host to an historic gathering, the Seventh International Conference of American States. We recognize in the high accomplishment of that assembly the great contribution made by His Excellency, the President of the Oriental Republic of Uruguay, and the Uruguayan Delegation.

In welcoming you in your new capacity, I beg you to convey my thanks to His Excellency, the President of the Oriental Republic of Uruguay, for his kind sentiments and to express to him my wishes for his personal welfare and for the happiness and prosperity of the Uruguayan people.

The new Minister of Uruguay was born on July 8, 1874, in Montevideo, where he received his early education; his later studies were made in Europe.



Photograph by Blank & Stoller Corp.

SEÑOR DON JOSÉ RICHLING
ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF URUGUAY
TO THE UNITED STATES

Señor Richling began his public career with his appointment as Consul General, second class, in South Africa. Four years later, in February 1910, he was promoted to Consul General, first class, and transferred to New York. Two and a half years later he was made inspector of consulates in North and Central America and the West Indies, a position which he held until 1920, when he again took charge of the Consul General's office in New York. In 1928 he became dean of the consular corps of that city.

During his public career he has been appointed to special and confidential missions of his Government to England, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Italy, Poland, Russia, Canada, and Cuba.

Señor Richling brings to his membership on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union a wide acquaintance with the affairs not only of the United States but also of other American nations.



SEE SOUTH AMERICA

By JENNIE ERSKINE MURRAY

IN my early days I learned from one of the most fascinating books I ever held in my hands, a thin square book with gaily colored circles on the covers and pictures of curious men and animals on the pages, and circles crossed by black lines curved and straight, and brilliant pages showing outlines of land and water; from this book I learned that the earth we live on is a ball, a sphere, that it is divided into two hemispheres, that the equator cuts through it in the middle, that on the hemispheres are situated the continents, and that South America is the continent situated on the southern half of the Western Hemisphere. So when I was asked by people in South America if I intended to do the customary thing and write a book upon my return home I said "No." I was making a rather protracted journey, one of more than four months on tropic seas and in lands below the equator, but in my subconscious mind was that little old geography book with its gay colors and circles, which showed South America as one of the great land masses of the earth's surface. I had no idea of adding to the number of books that had been written about this continent. Many great and valuable books there are already, treating various aspects of this part of the world with its great variety of interests, physical, ethnographical, historical, political, economic, social—and many more are yet to be written. Life is large, turbulent, and great of force down there, and great human history is in progress of making, but the writer of a book, on any phase of this life, finds himself entering upon a large field of unknown territory, and only after much time and thorough work will he be able to give facts that are accurate, make comparisons that are fair, or reach conclusions that have any degree of value. I did not go to South America to gather facts, make comparisons or reach conclusions. I went because I wanted to travel on the southern half of the earth and look up into the southern half of the sky. I went with no particular purpose. I was foot-loose and mind-free, susceptible to any influence, open to any convictions, ready for any reactions.

I visited ten different cities, staying in each for periods varying in length from a few hours to more than a month. Only two of these cities were located inland, and both of them on Andean heights. I made one long train journey of a week of almost constant day and night traveling, following a broken, inverted V-shaped line, having Uyuni in southern Bolivia for its apex, and Buenos Aires and Santiago

de Chile for its terminals. I followed two shorter lines that rose from the Pacific into the Andes, one rising from the ocean at Valparaiso and going up to the Chilean-Argentine frontier at Caracoles, and the other rising from Mollendo to Arequipa at the foot of El Misti in Peru. I made a five and a half hour flight over a desert plateau where great areas had perhaps never been trod by the foot of man or beast. Those few cities visited and narrow lines followed have left impressions that are strong and will last, convictions that are less strong and that are open until better knowledge brings confirmation, and reactions that are a continuous source of satisfaction. Now that I am back where the North Star shines in the sky, I find my home thoughts



THE CORDILLERA OF THE ANDES.

The mountain barriers between nations may be crossed by motor, rail, or plane.

continually ushering in thoughts of the world far south. A nip of frost in the air makes me think of an atmosphere lacking our tonic strength, our people on the streets recall to mind the people who throng the streets of those far-away cities, our troublous affairs of government cause me to think of South American agitations. Because these comparisons are constantly coming to mind, because it is interesting to recall the impressions and pleasant to recall the reactions, I write them not for the purpose of making a book, but just to have a record of impressions and reactions that it will always be a joy to remember, and comparisons that will be of changing interest day by day as history is being made in these countries and in our own. I do this

with no intention of adding to the sum of human knowledge but I should be glad if I could add to the sum of human thought a stimulation that would cause more people to travel in those lands and among those people who, with ourselves, are the makers of the New World.

GOING AND COMING

That little old geography book was quite forgotten long since. Many miles have I traveled and never a thought has come to me of the little flat volume from which I first read of the great world with its many people. But it must have been active in buried depths of consciousness as I sailed southward from New York, across the Gulf Stream, through the drift from the Sargasso Sea where brilliant creatures frisked in and out among miles of marshy patches, lying like a great ragged brown lace curtain on the water, through the belt where the trade winds enlivened the life of voyagers on a summer ocean and where flying fish, darting suddenly from the surface, planed in graceful sweeps out of danger from our boat, into the quiet of the doldrums, and out into the trade winds again. Always when I had traveled before, up and down and across the continent of North America, across the Atlantic and through the countries of Europe, I had thought of myself as located somewhere on a map. But now it was by means of my first lesson in geography that I was trying to realize my place on the earth. It was not on a map, but on a sphere, that I felt myself to be. There was the celestial sphere above, but not as I had always known it. The North Star was gone, and the Big Dipper too, after staying for awhile near the horizon, finally disappeared. But there were new stars. One night the "Pointers" to the Southern Cross were seen above the horizon and after that it was always the Southern Cross that caught my attention as I looked upon the sky blazing with stars in new array. One day the sun was straight over head at noon and the few short shadows were strangely weird for some moments. After that at the noon hour I always saw my shadow pointing southward. I say always. I am thinking of the days on the Atlantic side of South America. On the Pacific side—that's another story, a geography lesson that was not given in the little book. Perhaps it was considered too difficult for very young minds to learn or perhaps the writer of the book himself knew little about the Humboldt current. For centuries people had been going to South America before they knew why the east coast all through the Torrid Zone was hot, the sea was blue, the sky brilliant, the sunshine dazzling, and on the west coast in the same latitude and far to the south, all was gray, ocean and sky merged in gray, the coast line all obliterated in gray, and the air cool and balmy. The Humboldt current brings the cold waters of the Antarctic northward. Great upheavals have raised the earth into ranges of jagged peaks, into

great spreading plateaus, into gashes and gorges, and have formed a mountain wall that is lashed by the Pacific. The early Spanish adventurers who sailed the Spanish Main and then traveled around the Horn and northward, or else left their boats at the city they named after their leader, Cristóbal Colón, and journeyed across the Isthmus of Panama to embark on other boats that would take them southward, knew not how to account for the difference between the golden and the gray. It was not until the early nineteenth century, when Humboldt made his investigations of the land and water phenomena of the west coast, that these differences were scientifically explained. Even on the west coast there are certain months when the



A GUANAY COLONY ON THE ISLAND OF SANTA ROSA.

The rocky and barren islands off the Peruvian coast form the nesting places of millions of birds, of which the guanay is the most numerous. Guano to the extent of thousands of tons is shipped yearly to foreign ports.

tropical sun gets through and it was my good fortune, in the latter part of October, to see the mountain wall of Peru, with all its blended colors, lighted by sunshine, softened by shadows.

These fortunate days of sunshine also lighted for me the world that is inhabited by birds. Age after age, let come what changes will come, these birds sweep up and down the coast of Peru. They fly past your ship in long files, a most graceful procession, changing in formation and outlining new designs against the sky, or they burst into a great galaxy from a black ball apparently dropped from the heavens, or they shoot like arrows into the water and are gone to prey upon creatures below the surface. You see them resting on the

great white rocks, the guano islands rising high and bare against the high bare guano-whitened shore. They do everything in large companies. A dense population will settle down on the white coast and cover islands and shore as with a black pall. From the water at the base of these rocks, where no more standing room is left for these black and brown creatures, the black heads of seals rise as if to greet them and their sleek bodies roll in the waves, and sometimes the wicked head of a shark and his ugly body may be seen just long enough to remind you that there are demons down below. This world, made up of sky and ocean and bare mountain wall, is all alive, its heights and its depths filled with busy creatures intent on carrying out the laws of their existence.



A PANAGRA PLANE AT AREQUIPA, PERU.

The hurried visitor can make the journey by air from New York around South America and return in 16 days.

Going and coming, sailing to South America in the sunshine, sailing homeward in the gray, the dull gray or the opalescent gray, you feel, as they say every traveler to South America feels, that you are another Columbus, and with him you would say, "Sail on, and on, and on".

TRAVEL CONDITIONS

One of the many interesting sights seen from the deck of a steamer going through the Panama Canal is a fine stretch of inter-American highway being well traversed by motor cars that cross from the north American to the South American Continent over a bridge formed by the closed gates of the canal. But an automobile road from the United States to South America is not yet a reality. Although



Courtesy of Munson Steamship Line.

A RIO DE JANEIRO HOTEL.

This splendid hotel facing the bay, like others in the larger South American cities, provides every luxury demanded by the exacting traveler.

sections of considerable length are already in use, great portions of the road are still to be made through jungles and over deserts but in time the Pan-American Highway will be unbroken. At present, however, South America is reached either by air or by water.

The airplane traveler, starting from New York on a Tuesday or a Saturday, arrives in Lima five days later, having spent four nights at hotels and having stopped at many towns on the way. The round trip from New York down the west coast to Valparaiso, across the Andes to Buenos Aires, up the east coast and back to New York, or the trip in reverse direction, may be accomplished in sixteen days. Already the number of tickets sold each year to people making the complete trip is large, and there are thousands of tickets sold to people covering portions of the distance at prices that compare favorably with other means of transportation. I know from experience only six hundred miles of this trip, from Arequipa to Lima. I can imagine nothing more wonderful than the complete trip, looking down on the earth for sixteen days, seeing its many phases from the mid-North Temperate Zone to almost the same distance in the South

Temperate Zone, flying above deserts and jungles, over peaks and gorges, over cities, the newest and busiest in the world, over other cities that have stood in ruins for ages, over the largest river in the world, the greatest canal in the world and the highest mountain on the hemisphere—half the planet in a moving picture.

The way most United States travelers reach South America is by boat, leaving from San Francisco, New Orleans, or New York. No approach can be more delightful than by way of the Atlantic and no entrance is so magnificent as the port of Rio de Janeiro. Life on a Munson Liner for thirteen days on calm seas and under blue skies, provided with every comfort and luxury, is an enjoyment giving complete satisfaction as do few human experiences. To enter South America by a Pacific port, the Grace Line from New York gives a journey on boats that have a homelike charm. A day spent going through the canal, having lunch on a dining room deck, so that you do not miss a mile of that picturesque scenery of highlands and lakes, of tropical forests and stretches of meadow green, so that you do not miss an hour watching the mechanism of the locks and the dynamo-propelled "mules," and watching other ocean liners, like your own, climb a mountain range with perfect ease and just as easily descend the range on the other side, is a day that will never be forgotten.

In the large countries, those now spoken of as A B C and Peru—Argentina, Brazil, Chile, and Peru—traveling is not difficult for the American whose touring is restricted to the important cities. Everywhere he encounters his fellow countrymen and he is constantly meeting British people. Many South Americans speak English perfectly and those who have only limited English at their command, with the kindly attention which you may be sure every South American will show you when, as a stranger in his city, you ask for his help, will find some way to give assistance if he cannot direct you in spoken words. The hotels of the cities are of palatial elegance and have all modern improvements and conveniences, and well-organized service. Food is South American, heavier, richer, and more highly flavored than we are accustomed to digest, but in some of the hotels French chefs produce dishes equal to the best in Paris. Meals follow the European schedule, starting the day with what we call the continental breakfast served in the bedroom. Broiled partridges and broiled swordfish, roast kid, artichoke omelets, stews of small savory oysters, are dishes that are ordered repeatedly. The broiled chicken served at the "Chicken House", a restaurant in Buenos Aires, has a flavor that so far as I know is found only in Argentina. Drinking water in the large cities is generally safe, but milk is used by the tourist only when boiled, except when he comes upon a special shop where pasteurized milk is sold. Fruits are abundant, but except for the sweet limes, the pepino, and the chirimoya of Chile and Peru, I saw none

that are not to be found in New York markets, and the most attractive fruit that I saw anywhere in Rio de Janeiro was a box of cherries that had been packed in California. Diminutive bananas found in Rio markets are very sweet and the oranges there are luscious, but no more so than the great golden oranges of Peru. Coffee in Brazil is strong and heavy and combined in about equal parts with sugar. In the other countries, two or more varieties are blended and the farther you travel southward, the more delicate the blending seems to be. When you are in Lima going northward again you drink unblended coffee at León's which comes from León's own plantation, and most



Courtesy of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce.

A BUENOS AIRES STREET.

The largest city in the southern hemisphere offers the attractions of a metropolis of nearly two and a quarter million inhabitants.

people pronounce it the best coffee to be found in these cities of coffee and coffee-drinking people.

Transportation in these cities is all that can be desired. The traveler is met by taxicabs, generally of American make; he is conducted to them by porters with whom there is rarely any occasion for haggling as their prices are fixed by law, and who invariably show that kindly courtesy that is an outgrowth of their traditional rules of hospitality. Autobuses and trolley cars are numerous. The trolley cars in Rio de Janeiro are of the open kind now going out of use in our country. Rio de Janeiro knows no winter cold and the open cars of summer travel over great distances in this city of continuous summer-time. Buenos Aires has an underground railroad



A BUSY CORNER IN SANTIAGO.

The visitor from the United States will feel at home in the Chilean capital.

noteworthy for its brightly burnished cars and bright stations. Everywhere public conveyances are attractively clean. Generally they are of United States manufacture, although often made in South America by North American companies. Trains are pulled over plains and deserts and through gorges by Baldwin locomotives. Cars of the American type are used in Chile and Peru, but in Argentina I traveled in a European corridor *wagon-lit* and I found the dining car furnished as in Europe. A Pullman sleeping car is to be found on the Chilean Longitudinal Railroad, and the cars used on the electrified portions of the roads, within about three hours of Valparaiso and Santiago, are identically like those that carry New York commuters in and out from the Grand Central Station. The parlor cars, too, are the same as we have in our country. The observation car used in crossing the Andes is furnished with wicker chairs of homelike comfort and the traveler views the mountains from windows that enclose the car as walls of glass.

It is a strange experience to travel toward Santiago by rail, a mingling of familiar surroundings in a world of marvelous physical difference. Here you are, riding toward the snow-covered Andes, on an electric railroad, in a North American car, down near the thirty-third parallel of south latitude, just a comparatively short distance east of the meridian that runs north to New York. Home

lies very far away on that long line northward and there life is set on a very different stage—not against a background of sharp, white peaks—and yet you feel strangely at home here. The longitudinal line runs straight and it runs straight home, and home comes down that longitudinal line readily at your recall, and you feel delightfully at home, although you are far down on the southern half of the earth.

But trains do not serve in South America as they do in our country of broad plains and easy mountain passes. You can take a train from Rio de Janeiro that will take you over the mountains to São Paulo and then another train that will bring you down on the other side of the mountains out to the coast at Santos, but if your only object is to get from Rio de Janeiro to Santos, you had better take



MODERN SÃO PAULO, BRAZIL.

Recent years have seen the construction of many such office buildings in the business center of São Paulo

a boat or an airplane. So too, in traveling between all the ports, whether on the east or west coast, you have to wait for boats to take you from one port to another unless you desire to use air service, which is more frequent. When you want to get from a seaport to the interior, at the comparatively few places where there are railroads, you wait for your train, which leaves once or twice a week, and you may find a business man also waiting, perhaps a North American, enjoying his hotel for a few days, and accepting the pause in his proceedings with a contentment surprising to a northern visitor. It is the Twentieth Century that has shown to South America her way of transportation. Automobiles are waiting at railroad junctions to hurry business men away on long distances immediately upon the

arrival of trains, and the airplanes fly, their seats all occupied, taking on and discharging passengers at towns situated in desert oases and on mountain heights.

At all the important Pacific ports and even cities far inland, there are Grace Line offices, where English is spoken and information may be obtained. There are also the offices of the Pan American Grace Airways, the name by which the Pan American Airway system is known on the west coast. Other airway lines such as the Fawcett, in Lima, have offices where Americans are in charge. The Munson Line has offices in the cities on the Atlantic coast. In the larger cities are also offices called Exprinter that correspond to our Cook's and American Express, and in some the latter is to be found. In all these offices travel information is available. But remember, the South American cities are separated one from the other as islands in the sea. Mountain ranges, deserts, and jungles oppose barriers and these must be sailed around, climbed by train, or flown over, by the tourist.



THE MAIN PATIO OF LA MONEDA, SANTIAGO, CHILE.

THE FIRST CENTRAL AMERICAN CONFERENCE¹

ON March 15, 1934, official delegations sent by the Governments of Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua and El Salvador met in the National University of Guatemala to discuss matters of common interest to their respective nations and to draw up a treaty or treaties for the general welfare of Central America.

"Recognition of the fact that the five countries of Central America constitute a geographic and historic unit with common interests and traditions," said Dr. Hector Escobar Serrano, a delegate of El Salvador, in an address delivered at the closing session on April 12, "and the deep-rooted Central Americanist spirit of all our countries caused the convocation of this conference to be received with enthusiastic interest in view of the fact that the former Treaty of Peace and Amity had been denounced by Costa Rica and El Salvador. This meant that there was no uniform base, no general rule of conduct for the guidance of Central American relations, no juridical bond to coordinate our efforts and to indicate to our own nationals and to foreigners the affinity of our interests."

The delegates to the conference therefore drew up and signed a Treaty of Central American Fraternity, outlawing war between the five signatories, upholding the ideal of Central American union, recognizing the principle of the nonintervention of one state in the internal affairs of the others, making compulsory the pacific settlement of all international disputes, accepting the principle of specially lowered tariffs between the signatories, facilitating citizenship in the country of residence to any national of another Central American Republic, establishing measures for the unification of education throughout Central America and for intellectual interchange, validating public instruments and the judicial acts of one country in the others, advocating improved communications, especially by the Pan American highway, and providing for the opening of a "House of Central America" in each capital. Honduras made a reservation to Article V on the pacific settlement of international controversies (see page 416).

An extradition convention was also signed at the same time.

It may be recalled that in 1922 the United States invited the Central American Republics to send plenipotentiaries to Washington for the purpose of assembling in conference and discussing among other matters "the negotiation of a treaty or treaties to make effective

¹ This is a translation of the official designation of the conference.

those provisions of the treaties signed at Washington on December 20, 1907, which experience has shown to be effective in maintaining friendly relations and cooperation among the Central American States; and the consideration of any other questions which the countries represented at the conference unanimously desire to consider."

In November of the same year the Governments of the five Central American Republics in their turn invited the Government of the United States to appoint delegates to meet with them in the Conference on Central American Affairs thus convoked.

As the result of this conference, which met from December 4, 1922–February 7, 1923, the following treaties, conventions, and protocols were drawn up and signed: (1) General Treaty of Peace and Amity; (2) Convention for the Establishment of an International Central American Tribunal; (3) Additional Protocol to the foregoing Convention; (4) Convention for the Limitation of Armaments; (5) Convention for the Establishment of Permanent Central American Commissions; (6) Extradition Convention; (7) Convention relative to the Preparation of Projects of Electoral Legislation; (8) Convention for the Unification of Protective Laws for Workmen and Laborers; (9) Convention for the Establishment of Stations for Agricultural Experiments and Animal Industries; (10) Convention for the Reciprocal Exchange of Central American Students; (11) Convention on the Practice of the Liberal Professions; (12) Convention between the Republics of Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, and Nicaragua for the Establishment of Free Trade; (13) Convention between the United States of America and the Republics of Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica for the Establishment of International Commissions of Inquiry; (14) Protocol concluded between the United States of America and the Republics of Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica, whereby the United States agrees to send 15 arbitrators to serve on tribunals. The United States, as may be observed, was signatory only to (13) and (14).

On December 23, 1932, the President of Costa Rica issued a decree denouncing the General Treaty of Peace and Amity and 3 days later the President of El Salvador did the same. It was due to this action and to the necessity of finding a "general rule of conduct for the guidance of Central American relations" that the First Central American Conference, as has been said, met last March in Guatemala. The delegates were as follows: Guatemala: Dr. José María Reina Andrade, Dr. Carlos Salazar, Dr. Rafael Ordóñez Solís, and Dr. José Mariano Trabanino; Costa Rica: Dr. Octavio Beeche and Dr. Manuel Francisco Jiménez; Honduras: Dr. Silverio Laínez and Dr. Saturnino Meda; Nicaragua: Dr. Crisanto Sacasa, Dr. Manuel



INAUGURATION OF THE FIRST CENTRAL AMERICAN CONFERENCE.

Dr. Alfredo Skinner Klee, Guatemalan Secretary of Foreign Affairs, is shown delivering his address of welcome to the delegates at the inaugural session of the Conference in the National University of Guatemala, March 15, 1934.

Cordero Reyes, Señor Santiago Argüello, and Señor Pedro Joaquín Cuadra Chamorro; and El Salvador: Dr. Miguel Tomás Molina, Señor Antonio Álvarez Vidaurre, and Dr. Héctor Escobar Serrano.

Prior to the meeting of the conference the President of Guatemala, General Jorge Ubico, addressed a note to the Secretary of Foreign Affairs of that country requesting him "to instruct the delegates of Guatemala that at the proper opportunity they should submit to the consideration of the Central American Conference the draft Treaty of Fraternity, containing my personal views on the new course which in my opinion should be given to the policy guiding relations between the five sister republics."

In compliance with this request, the draft treaty, with another General Treaty of Peace and Amity prepared by the Guatemalan delegation, was submitted to the governments of the other Central American republics for their consideration and study before the conference met.

The Treaty of Central American Fraternity signed on April 12 was based on the draft submitted by the President of Guatemala, and the Convention on Extradition was based on that previously in force.

Dr. Alfredo Skinner Klee, Secretary of Foreign Affairs of Guatemala, presided at the closing as at the opening session. The members of the

Cabinet, the diplomatic corps, members of the national legislature and the judiciary, and other distinguished persons were present.

After the text of the pacts had been read, Señor Everardo Gómez, Secretary of the Costa Rican Delegation, and the First Secretary of the Conference, presented the following resolution:

Considering that the patriotic initiative of His Excellency General Jorge Ubico, President of the Republic of Guatemala, in calling this conference and the excellent ideas expressed in the draft treaty which he drew up as the basis for its deliberation entitle him to a tribute from the conference,

The First Central American Conference Resolves: To express its sincere gratitude to General Ubico for his Central Americanist point of view and for the encouragement which he has thereby given to the rebuilding of the larger nation. Given in the city of Guatemala, April 12, 1934. Signed, J. M. Reina Andrade, M. T. Molina, Silverio Lafinez, Crisanto Sacasa, Octavio Beeche, Santiago Argüello, Manuel F. Jiménez, Saturnino Medal, M. Cordero Reyes, Antonio Álvarez V., Pedro J. Cuadra Ch., H. Escobar Serrano, Carlos Salazar, José Mariano Trabaino, Raf. Ordóñez Solís.

Immediately thereafter Dr. Hector Escobar Serrano, delegate of El Salvador, rose to give a brief summary of the work accomplished by the conference. After saying that complete harmony and cordiality had prevailed in this assembly of sister nations which once formed a single republic, he went on to describe the accomplishments of the conference, speaking in part as follows:

As a result of this conference, whose meeting place could not have been better chosen, we have signed a Treaty of Central American Fraternity and a Convention on the Extradition of Fugitive Criminals. The work may seem slight but experience has shown that the greater part of the conventions signed in Washington in 1923 were either not ratified by all the signatory governments or were not effective in practice because of the difficulties that they presented. We have thus preferred to disregard what seemed unessential and of doubtful efficacy, accepting only the useful and feasible. Furthermore, the instruments signed at Washington in 1923 will continue in force among the parties who have ratified them insofar as they are not contradicted or modified by the new treaty. . . .

We do not pretend that our work is perfect or definitive. Perhaps present circumstances have prevented us from going as far as we should like, but we wish to bear witness, at least, that we have patriotically and sincerely endeavored to remove obstacles from the road which our countries are destined to travel together, and to lay solid and firm foundations on which national reconstruction shall rest in a not far distant future.

Following this statement Dr. Skinner Klee made an eloquent address in which he expressed the aspirations of his country and of President Ubico. He spoke in part as follows:

President Ubico faithfully interpreted the national sentiment that seven and a half million Central Americans should live together in the land of their forefathers under beneficent institutions based on the honor and dignity of the respective states which are united by the solid bonds of economic interest and commercial expansion, just now the best means of harmonizing apparently antagonistic tendencies. He also desired that the Central American spirit of future generations should be warmed and strengthened not by the preaching of politicians

but by a common standard of education which should rectify erroneous opinions and local separatism, soften old and unjustifiable antagonisms, and harmonize opposing interests. For this purpose he invited you to write into our fraternal treaty a summons to congresses of teachers and educational experts who should draw up uniform plans of education. He desired still more; he desired that you should convoke university conferences to consider the unification of professional training as the best means of fusing into one the spirit of our universities. President Ubico also had the aspiration that you would break down the frontiers which close a way to the free passage of Central Americans who in their journeys from one country to another are obliged to present passports and to be the object of irritating personal investigations, as if they were dangerous foreigners. The unification of our currencies, the standardization of customs duties, and the development of an economic plan which would bring the interests of each State into harmony with those of Central America were to have been the object of careful study on the part of experts, who should investigate, analyze, summarize, and advise the best solution to such complex and difficult problems.

We knew that the task was difficult, but not impossible, and we hoped that your gifts of statesmanship and learning would find the best paths to our common goal.

Your work is the Treaty of Central American Fraternity which you have just signed. This is a reflection of the actual state of national feeling, as interpreted by your governments. The Government of Guatemala profoundly respects your decision. Everything that you have written into the treaty to maintain the absolute independence of the various states and to preserve national dignity and respect will be faithfully observed by the Government of General Ubico in accordance with his practice since he assumed office.

We understand, although we regret, that special circumstances in some States would not permit you to go as far as the President of Guatemala desired in the unification of Central American economic interests; but he will always be ready to join with our sister Republics in any collective efforts to foster the welfare and greatness of Central America.

The following is the text of the instruments signed at the closing session:

TREATY OF CENTRAL AMERICAN FRATERNITY

The governments of the republics of Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, and El Salvador, in the desire to strengthen Central American peace and fraternity, on bases of positive convenience, to develop their progress and prepare the conditions of national unity as the only means of realizing the just aspirations of their respective peoples, have agreed to celebrate a Treaty of Central American Fraternity, and, to this end, have named delegates, as follows:

Guatemala: Their Excellencies Licenciados José María Reina Andrade, Carlos Salazar, José Mariano Trabanino and Rafael Ordóñez Solís;

Costa Rica: Their Excellencies Licenciados Octavio Beeche and Manuel Francisco Jiménez;

Honduras: Their Excellencies Drs. Silverio Lafnez and Saturnino Meda;

Nicaragua: Their Excellencies Drs. Crisanto Sacasa, Santiago Argüello, Manuel Cordero Reyes and don Pedro Joaquín Cuadra Chamorro; and

El Salvador: Their Excellencies Dr. Miguel Tomás Molina, don Antonio Álvarez Vidaurre and Dr. Héctor Escobar Serrano, who after communicating their respective full powers, which they found in good and due form, and having met in a Central American Conference, resolve to carry out their proposals in the following manner:

ARTICLE I

The Republics of Central America consider it their primary duty to maintain peace among themselves, eliminating every motive for disagreement and promoting by every possible means the closest rapprochement, the most cordial harmony, and a generous fraternity in their reciprocal relations. They solemnly declare that they will never make use of force to settle their differences and that war is impossible among them and is proscribed forever.

ARTICLE II

The Republics of Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, and El Salvador recognize that the political union of Central America is the supreme aspiration of its peoples, and that to realize that ideal in the future the Governments here represented are disposed to lend their effective cooperation to unify those interests which they have in common, without diminution of or detriment to their sovereignty, in order to prepare the way for national reconstruction.

ARTICLE III

Notwithstanding the obligations of a fraternal character which the signatory republics assume under this Treaty, in favor of the cause of national unity, they shall retain their full sovereignty, and their private power to conduct their political and administrative affairs of an internal character, as well as to direct their international relations.

ARTICLE IV

The principle of nonintervention of each one of the contracting States in the internal affairs of the others, is expressly recognized as obligatory, and the strictest neutrality shall be observed by each Government in its relations with the others. As a consequence of this principle, and in the desire to maintain permanent peace, the signatory Governments agree not to permit any person to promote or develop revolutionary movements within their territory against the Government of any other Central American Republic; and they also obligate themselves to adopt and dictate the measures which they may consider effective and compatible with their legislation, to prevent acts of the nature referred to from being carried out within their territory.

ARTICLE V

Conflicts which in the future may arise among the Central American States shall be settled only and exclusively by means of arbitration, without prejudice to the right of recourse to the other means of pacific solution. There shall be no exception which can prevent arbitration.

With respect to the procedure and other conditions under which the arbitration shall be conducted they shall be those established in the Arbitral Convention to which the interested parties will subscribe.

ARTICLE VI

The High Contracting Parties accept the principle that the Central American countries may grant each other customs discounts and other exclusive facilities in the case of regional products, whether or not manufactured. They obligate themselves to endeavor to arrange that this exception to the most-favored-nation clause be recognized by other nations, and to this end they shall include it in future commercial treaties which they may sign.

ARTICLE VII

Natives of Central America, residents of any of the States, shall not be considered as foreigners; they shall enjoy the same rights, without any limitation, and shall have the same civil obligations as nationals. They shall be considered as nationals of the country where they reside, when they so request in conformity with the constitution of said country; for the exercise of political rights it shall be necessary that they have legal capacity under the laws of their country of origin and of the country where they are to exercise them. The accepted applicant shall have all the rights and obligations which pertain to nationals in accordance with their respective constitutions.

ARTICLE VIII

The Signatory States declare that they consider it of essential importance to arrive at the unification of the fundamental bases of their respective laws in civil, penal, commercial, administrative, and economic matters, and therefore obligate themselves to coordinate their efforts to obtain that result, in accordance with the peculiar circumstances and conditions of each Republic.

ARTICLE IX

Steps shall be taken to unify elementary, secondary, and professional education. For that purpose, within the six months following the approval and ratification of this Treaty, each State shall designate three normal-school instructors of recognized competence to form a Central American Commission for the unification of public instruction. They shall also designate two professors for each State to draw up a plan for secondary instruction which must be uniform in the five Republics; and, lastly, there shall be called a university congress consisting of technical delegates from the various Central American universities, to agree upon and draw up a uniform program of professional instruction.

ARTICLE X

Until the unification proposed in the preceding Article is achieved, Guatemala offers to the four sister Republics, as a pledge of its sincere fraternity, five scholarships for each State in the National Institute, five in the Polytechnic School, and exemption from payment of fees for examination and matriculation in its Schools of Law and Political Sciences, School of Medicine, of Pharmacy, of Engineering, and of Aviation. Each of the other Signatory States, appreciating the generous offer of the Government of Guatemala, is pleased to offer to students of the Sister Republics an equal number of scholarships, and the same facilities in its respective official institutions of learning.

ARTICLE XI

Professional and academic titles awarded to native Central Americans by the official institutions of each State, as well as scientific studies performed in the universities, professional schools, and official institutions of learning, shall be recognized in the other States without any requirements other than those of authenticity of the documents and of the identity of the person.

Nevertheless, in order to practice a profession in the territory of the state of which recognition of the title is being requested, the interested party must fulfill the local laws regulating such practice.

These provisions shall apply also to titles, acquired in foreign countries by native Central Americans, when admission to practice has been granted in any one of the States; but if this should have been subsequent to the Convention signed in Washington, February 7, 1923, in which these prerogatives of Central Americans were recognized, it shall be necessary, for the purpose referred to, that admission shall have been made following an examination before the corresponding faculty.

ARTICLE XII

Public instruments executed in one of the contracting Republics shall be valid in the others, provided they shall have been properly authenticated, and in their execution the laws of the Republic whence they issue shall have been observed.

ARTICLE XIII

The judicial authorities of the contracting Republics shall carry out the judicial commissions and warrants in civil, commercial, and criminal matters, with regard to citations, interrogatories and other acts of procedure of judicial function; and exception shall be made in the case of judicial commissions and warrants in criminal matters, if the act provoking them does not constitute a crime in the country requested to execute said judicial commissions and warrants.

Other judicial acts in civil or commercial matters, arising out of a personal suit, shall have in the territory of any one of the Contracting Parties equal force with those of the local tribunals and shall be executed in the same manner, provided always that they shall first have been declared executory by the Supreme Tribunal of the Republic, wherein they are to be executed, which shall be done if they meet the essential requirements of their respective legislation and they shall be carried out in accordance with the laws in force in each country for the execution of judgments.

ARTICLE XIV

The Governments of the contracting Republics shall take vigorous joint action to further the development of terrestrial, maritime, and air communication within Central America. They shall give especial attention to the Pan American Highway, endeavoring to reach an understanding with the other interested governments, in order to obtain their cooperation to terminate that great work.

ARTICLE XV

The contracting parties obligate themselves to develop touring among them through the organization of special commissions—effectively supported by the Governments—, in order to facilitate reciprocal knowledge of the respective countries.

Until the circumstances permit complete abolition of passports, the signatory Governments agree that the issuance and visa of passports which Central Americans require who must travel from one to another of the Contracting Republics shall be exempt from all national, municipal, or consular duty or tax, of whatever form or denomination.

ARTICLE XVI

The Governments of the contracting States shall keep in frequent and cordial communication with each other in order to intensify their fraternal relations through their respective Foreign Offices and the diplomatic and consular agents whom they may deem it opportune to accredit.

ARTICLE XVII

Each one of the signatory Governments shall establish in the capital of the Republic an Institution under the name of "House of Central America", to which end it shall devote or construct quarters containing an adequate department for each one of the five Republics. Each one of the Governments shall maintain, in its department, at its own expense, the personnel which in its judgment, it considers necessary, to place at the disposition of the public, without charge, the following:

1. Copies of the daily press and newspapers published in the State concerned.
2. All books by Central American authors which are edited in that Republic, as well as those which may refer to manifestations of art.
3. The political Constitution and all the civil, penal, and commercial legislation, as well as legislation concerning matters of legal procedure in effect, and organic and complementary laws.
4. Customs tariffs, and whatever references may be necessary and useful for import and export trade.
5. An exposition of, and the laws referring to, the national and municipal tax system. The creation and regulation of monopolies.
6. An exposition of, and the laws relating to, the monetary and banking system of the country.
7. Presidential messages and Reports of the Secretaries of State.
8. Statistics: vital, commercial, and agricultural.
9. Provisions of a sanitary nature. Organizations for public charity.
10. References concerning the cost of living, salaries, and the value of lands, and, in general, any data which the immigrant may require.
11. Data of interest to Central American tourists, methods of transportation, cost of travel, climate, meteorological details.
12. An exposition of exportable products, samples, prices, and quantities offered. A directory of producers, and consignment and commission agents, with their respective bank references.

Each Government shall provide for its department in the "House of Central America" the regulations which it considers desirable, including in them the following provisions:

- (a) That the respective offices should cooperate in the formation of comparative Central American statistics.
- (b) That each one should interest itself in the study of all that which conduces to the development of trade among the five Republics.
- (c) That they should cooperate in the publication of an annual Report to be prepared by the "House of Central America" of each one of the capitals of the Republics of Central America.

ARTICLE XVIII

If one or more of the Central American Republics should not ratify the present Treaty, it shall be carried out if it is accepted by three of them; but in any case the countries not adhering shall be considered as separated parts of the Central American Nation, and at any time shall have the right to adhere to the stipulations of this Pact.

ARTICLE XIX

The Contracting Governments obligate themselves to seek constitutional ratification of the present Treaty without delay. The deposit of ratifications shall be made in the Ministry of Foreign Relations of the Government of Guatemala, and the latter shall communicate them to the other Governments.

ARTICLE XX

This Treaty shall be of indefinite duration; but any of the parties may denounce it, by notifying the other States of its decision one year prior to such denunciation. In such a case it shall continue to be in effect among the others unless they be less than three.

ARTICLE XXI

The Treaties or Conventions signed in the City of Washington on February 7, 1923, remain in force among the Central American States which ratified them in due course and which have not denounced them, with respect to all those provisions which are not opposed to the terms of the present Treaty or have not been modified by it.

In witness whereof the Delegates of the Central American Governments sign the present Treaty in five originals of the same tenor, in the City of Guatemala, April 12, 1934.

The delegation of Honduras, in approving article V of the present treaty, makes a reservation in the sense that there shall be no other exception to arbitration than the cases which have already been settled by this means; and that the provisions of the article referred to shall not be applicable to pending matters or controversies nor to those which may arise in the future with reference to acts prior to the date on which this treaty becomes effective.

(ss) J. M. REINA ANDRADE,
CARLOS SALAZAR,
RAF. ORDÓÑEZ SOLÍS,
JOSÉ MARIANO TRABANINO,
OCTAVIO BEECHE,
MANUEL FRANCISCO JIMÉNEZ,
SILVERIO LAÍNEZ,
SATURNINO MEDAL,
CRISANTO SACASA,
SANTIAGO ARGÜELLO,
M. CORDERO REYES,
PEDRO J. CUADRA CH.,
M. T. MOLINA,
ANTONIO ÁLVAREZ V.,
H. ESCOBAR SERRANO.

CENTRAL AMERICAN EXTRADITION CONVENTION

The Governments of the Republics of Guatemala, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, and El Salvador, desiring to confirm their friendly relations and to promote the cause of justice, have resolved to celebrate a Convention for the Extradition of Fugitives from Justice, and, to that end, have named as delegates:

Guatemala: Their Excellencies Licenciados José María Reina Andrade, Carlos Salazar, Rafael Ordóñez Solís, and José Mariano Trabanino;

Costa Rica: Their Excellencies Licenciados Octavio Beeche and Manuel Francisco Jiménez;

Honduras: Their Excellencies Doctors Silverio Laínez and Saturnino Medal;

Nicaragua: Their Excellencies Doctors Crisanto Sacasa and Manuel Cordero Reyes and Messrs. Santiago Argüello and Pedro Joaquín Cuadra Chamorro; and,

El Salvador: Their Excellencies Doctor Miguel Tomás Molina, don Antonio Álvarez Vidaurre, and Doctor Héctor Escobar Serrano, who, after having communicated to one another their respective full powers which were found to be in good and due form have agreed to carry out the said purpose in the following manner:

ARTICLE I

The Contracting Republics agree to deliver up reciprocally the individuals who may take refuge in the territory of one of them and who in the other may have been condemned, as authors, accomplices, or abettors of a crime, to not less than two years of deprivation of their liberty, or who may have been indicted for a crime which, in accordance with the laws of the country seeking the extradition, carries a penalty equal to or greater than that above stated.

ARTICLE II

Extradition shall not be granted in any of the following cases:

1. When the evidence of criminality presented by the country seeking extradition would not have been sufficient to justify, according to the laws of the place where the accused fugitive from justice is found, his apprehension and commitment for trial, if the offense had been committed there.

2. When the offense is of a political character, or, being a common crime, is connected therewith.

3. When under the laws of the country seeking extradition or of that of asylum, the action or the penalty has been barred.

4. If the accused demanded should have already been tried and sentenced for the same offense in the Republic wherein he resides.

5. If the accused should have served the sentence which may have been imposed upon him for the same crime in any other country.

6. If, in that country, the act for which extradition is asked, is not considered a crime.

7. When the penalty corresponding to the crime for which extradition is requested shall be that of death, unless the Government seeking extradition binds itself to apply the next lower penalty.

ARTICLE III

The person whose extradition is conceded, because of one of the crimes mentioned in Article I, shall in no case be tried and punished in the country to which he is surrendered for a political crime committed before his extradition nor for an act which may have connection with a political crime. Attempts against the life of the head of a government or public functionaries and anarchistic attacks shall not be considered political crimes, provided that the law of the country seeking extradition and of the country of which extradition is requested shall have fixed a penalty for said acts. In that case extradition shall be granted, even when the crime in question shall carry a penalty of less than two years of deprivation of liberty.

ARTICLE IV

The Contracting Parties shall not be obliged to deliver their nationals; but they must try them for the infractions of the Penal Code committed in any of the

other Republics. The respective Governments must communicate the corresponding proceedings, information and documents, and deliver the articles which constitute the *corpus delicti*, furnishing everything that may contribute to the elucidation needed for the expedition of the trial. This having been done, the case shall be prosecuted until its determination, and the Government of the country of the trial shall inform the other of the final result.

ARTICLE V

If the individual whose extradition is sought should have been indicted or should have been found guilty in the country of his asylum for a crime committed therein, he shall not be delivered except after having been acquitted by a final judgment, and in case of his conviction after he has served the sentence or has been pardoned.

ARTICLE VI

If the fugitive whose extradition is requested by one of the Contracting Parties should also be sought by one or more Governments he shall be delivered in preference to the one first making the requisition.

ARTICLE VII

Request for the delivery of fugitives shall be made by the respective diplomatic agents of the Contracting Parties and, in default of the latter, by consular officers.

In urgent cases the provisional detention of the accused may be requested by means of telegraphic or postal communication, addressed to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, or through the respective diplomatic agent, or in his absence, through the consul. The provisional arrest shall be made according to the rules established by the laws of the country of which extradition is requested; but shall cease if the request for extradition has not been formally presented within the term of one month following the arrest.

ARTICLE VIII

The request for extradition shall specify the proof or presumptive evidence which, by the laws of the country wherein the crime has been committed, shall be sufficient to justify the apprehension and commitment of the accused. The judgment, indictment, warrant of arrest, or any other equivalent document shall also accompany the same; and the nature and gravity of the acts charged and the provisions of the penal codes which are applicable thereto must be indicated. In case of flight after having been found guilty and before serving the entire sentence, the request for extradition shall express the circumstance and shall be accompanied only by the judgment.

ARTICLE IX

The proper authority shall apprehend the fugitive, in order that he may be brought before the competent Judicial authority for examination. Should it be decided, according to the laws and the evidence presented, that the surrender can be carried out in conformity with this Convention, the fugitive shall be delivered in the manner prescribed by law in such cases.

The country seeking extradition shall take the necessary measures to receive the accused within one month from the date when the latter shall have been placed at its disposal, and if said Government should fail to do so, the aforesaid accused may be released.

ARTICLE X

The person delivered cannot be tried nor punished in the country to which his extradition has been granted, nor delivered to a third country, for a crime not included in this Convention, and committed before his surrender, unless the Government which makes the surrender consents to the trial, or to the delivery to said third nation.

Nevertheless this consent shall not be necessary:

1. When the accused may voluntarily have requested that he be tried or delivered to the third nation;
2. When he may have been at liberty to leave the country for thirty days after his release, on the ground of the lack of foundation in the charge for which he was surrendered, or, in case of conviction, a term of thirty days after serving his sentence or obtaining a pardon.

ARTICLE XI

The expenses of arrest, maintenance, and travel of the extradited person, as well as of the delivery and transportation of the articles which, because of their connection with the crime, have to be returned or forwarded, shall be borne by the Government seeking extradition.

ARTICLE XII

All the objects found in the possession of the accused and obtained through the commission of the act of which he is accused, or that may serve as evidence of the crime on account of which extradition is requested, shall be confiscated and delivered with his person upon order of competent authority of the Country from which extradition is sought. Nevertheless the rights of third parties concerning these articles shall be respected, and delivery thereof shall not be made until the question of ownership has been determined.

ARTICLE XIII

In all cases of detention the fugitive shall be acquainted within the term of twenty-four hours with the cause thereof, and notified that he may, within a period not to exceed three days counted from the one following that of the notification, oppose extradition, by alleging:

1. That he is not the person claimed;
2. Substantial defects in the documents presented; and
3. The inadmissibility of the request of extradition.

ARTICLE XIV

In cases where it is necessary to prove the facts alleged, evidence shall be taken, in full observance of the provisions of the law of procedure of the Republic of which extradition is requested. The evidence having been produced, the matter shall be decided without further steps, within the period of ten days, and it shall be declared whether or not the extradition shall be granted. Against such a decision, and within three days following notification thereof, the legal remedies of the Country of asylum may be invoked.

ARTICLE XV

The present Convention shall take effect with respect to the Parties that have ratified it, from the date of its ratification by at least three of the Signatory States.

ARTICLE XVI

The present Convention shall remain in force until the first of January, nineteen hundred and forty-five, regardless of any prior denunciation, or any other cause. From the first of January, nineteen hundred and forty-five, it shall continue in force until one year after the date on which one of the Parties bound thereby notifies the others of its intention to denounce it. The denunciation of this Convention by one or two of said Contracting Parties shall leave it in force for those Parties which have ratified it and have not denounced it, provided that these be no less than three in number. Should two or three states bound by this Convention form a single political entity, the same Convention shall be in force as between the new entity and the Republics bound thereby which have remained separate, provided these be no less than two in number. Any of the Republics of Central America which should fail to ratify this Convention shall have the right to adhere to it while it is in force.

ARTICLE XVII

The exchange of ratifications of the present Convention shall be made through communications addressed by the Governments to the Government of Guatemala in order that the latter may inform the other Contracting States. If the Government of Guatemala should ratify the Convention, notice of said ratification shall also be communicated to the others.

ARTICLE XVIII

When the present Convention becomes effective the one celebrated in the City of Washington on February 7, 1923, on the same subject will cease to be in effect.

Signed in the City of Guatemala on the 12th day of April 1934.

(ss) J. M. REINA ANDRADE,
CARLOS SALAZAR,
RAF. ORDÓÑEZ SOLÍS,
JOSÉ MARIANO TRABANINO,
OCTAVIO BEECHE,
MANUEL FRANCISCO JIMÉNEZ,
SILVERIO LAÍNEZ,
SATURNINO MEDAL,
CRISANTO SACASA,
SANTIAGO ARGÜELLO,
M. CORDERO REYES,
PEDRO J. CUADRA CH.,
M. T. MOLINA,
ANTONIO ÁLVAREZ V.,
H. ESCOBAR SERRANO.



PAN AMERICAN DAY IN THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

PAN American Day is observed annually on April 14, having been set aside by Presidential proclamation in the United States and in all the other Republics of the American continent. The day is intended to commemorate the community of interests, the close co-operation, and the friendly feeling existing between the American nations, and is therefore observed with appropriate ceremonies throughout the Western Hemisphere.

In the Pan American Union the day was given special significance by an address made by the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board of this institution. He spoke before the brilliant audience assembled in the Hall of the Americas for a concert given by the United Service Orchestra, Margot Ros, an eight-year-old Cuban pianist, and Eduardo Caso, a well-known Latin American tenor. The Chairman of the Governing Board said:

“LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

“It is my privilege this evening to extend greetings not only to the distinguished audience here assembled but also to the many thousands of persons in every section of this continent who are within hearing of this broadcast. The concert of Latin American music to which we have just been listening is one of a long series arranged by the Pan American Union. Through these concerts, the people of the United States are becoming acquainted with the important contributions which the nations of Latin America are making to one phase of our modern culture. During the course of a recent extended tour, I enjoyed the opportunity of informing myself concerning the significant attainments of our sister Republics not only in the field of music but also their equally important achievements in the domains of literature, science, and the arts.

“We are today celebrating Pan American Day—a day set apart by the Chief Executives of the twenty-one Republics of America and dedicated to the high purpose of emphasizing the essential unity of interests and institutions of the nations members of the Pan American Union. It is an inspiring thought that on this day and at this time thousands of citizens are assembled throughout the continent with the sole purpose of bringing the peoples of the western world into closer touch with one another and of promoting the closest possible understanding amongst them. To all those participating in

these celebrations, I desire to extend the warm greetings of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union as well as my personal wishes for the progress and prosperity of their respective countries.

"During the last year it has been my privilege to preside over the meetings of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. I have been deeply impressed with the fine spirit of cooperation which the members of the Board bring to each and every one of the important problems which they are called upon to consider. It is this spirit of unity, of essential community of interests, which characterizes the discussions and which guides the Board in reaching its conclusions. I know of but few, if any, instances in the history of international relations in which higher standards of international dealing have been maintained.

"This occasion affords me the opportunity again to emphasize the importance of fostering closer cultural ties between the nations of this Continent. Such currents of understanding are essential to the growth of a truly continental system based upon mutual comprehension of purposes and ideals. The interchange of professors, and especially the establishment of scholarships and fellowships for students from other American countries, are essential factors in furthering this great purpose. I cannot emphasize too strongly the importance of giving more attention in the schools and universities of the United States to the history of Latin America. I am under the impression that in the schools of those Republics the fullest attention is given to the history of the United States. We must devote equally full attention to the history of the Latin American countries in any instance where we may not be doing so. Their history is full of lessons of great value. To all of us, whether living north or south of the Equator, the record of the development of democratic institutions on this Continent is a matter of vital interest. In a sense, this continent has been and is a great laboratory in which the development of similar institutions, under totally different environmental conditions, is full of instruction both to the student and to the statesman. No one would accuse me of being unmindful of the importance of developing closer commercial ties between the nations of America, but considering the situation from the point of view of the development of a distinctly American system based upon mutual confidence and mutual understanding, I cannot escape the conclusion that the establishment of more and more channels of intellectual intercourse is of primary importance.

"The commemoration of Pan American Day this year possesses a special significance for us in the United States. At no time in our history have the relations with our sister Republics been on a more firm and sound foundation. Suspicions aroused in the past have been allayed. The recent Pan American Conference at Montevideo marks

the beginning of a new era. We, in the United States, in common with the citizens of the Republics of Latin America, have every reason to rejoice that this new spirit pervades the continent. The free peoples of the Americas are now in a position to give to the world an example of an international system in which mutual sympathy, fair dealing, and constructive cooperation are the guiding principles of international conduct. In so doing, we shall best serve our own permanent interests as well as those of the world at large."

EDWIN V. MORGAN

By ANNIE D'ARMOND MARCHANT

Assistant Editor, "Boletim da União Panamericana"

WITH the death of Edwin V. Morgan, former Ambassador of the United States to Brazil, it may truly be said that a great patriot and a great internationalist passed away. He was indeed a patriot and an internationalist in the true and practical sense of these words, for during the many years that he served the United States in various countries, among them three Latin American Republics—Cuba, Uruguay, and Brazil—he was a definite force in strengthening the bonds of friendship between them and his own country.

In Brazil alone, Ambassador Morgan served for a period of more than twenty years, thus establishing a record for all American diplomats. This exceptional tenure of office, in itself a striking testimony to Ambassador Morgan's high statesmanship and to the regard in which his services were held by both the United States and Brazil, precludes the necessity of enumerating in this short tribute those outstanding and delicate achievements of diplomacy which marked his ambassadorship, and which helped to maintain and deepen the traditional friendship which has always existed between the two countries.

He arrived in Brazil in 1912 and was Chief of Mission until 1933, when he resigned, being succeeded by the present Ambassador, the Hon. Hugh S. Gibson. After traveling for a time in the United States and Europe, he returned to Brazil and established his home definitely in the beautiful mountain city of Petropolis. His period of rest, however, was short, for in less than a year—on April 16, 1934—he was suddenly overtaken by death, at the age of 68 years.

As a special mark of consideration and in token of the warm affection in which Mr. Morgan was always held by the Brazilian people, the Government of Brazil took full responsibility for his funeral, according to the former American Ambassador all the honors due to an ambassador in the exercise of duty.

On the morning of April 18 a special train left Rio de Janeiro, conveying to Petropolis the representative of the President, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, and other high officials of the Government, the Ambassador of the United States and other members of the diplomatic corps, and the American residents, who were to take part in the impressive obsequies prepared by the Government to pay tribute to the memory of Edwin V. Morgan as his body was lowered to rest. It would be hopeless to attempt an account of the long cortège, the masses of flowers, the multitude of friends, come together in this beautiful mountain retreat to do homage to the memory of a distinguished and beloved statesman.

During the twenty years that Ambassador Morgan served in Brazil, there never was a time when he was not alert and ready to serve Americans and Brazilians alike. Nothing was too small and nothing was too great for his considerate and efficient attention. How many Americans must recall his handshake of welcome or farewell, how many must remember his friendly smile as the first to greet them or the last to bid them Godspeed from those hospitable shores! To the Brazilians he had become a habit, known affectionately as just "Morgan" or "Our Morgan."

Ambassador Morgan was a devoted admirer of Brazil and never lost an opportunity of bringing its material and cultural resources to the attention of his own country. He strove always toward the end that both countries should know and understand the best of each other and to this purpose was always, so to speak, exchanging tokens of understanding. In Rio he donated a valuable library of American books to a school; in the United States he presented to a university a valuable collection of Brazilian historical works. A great lover of art, he chose for his residence in Petropolis the historical palace of Grão Pará, and there surrounded himself with beautiful things, including works of all the outstanding Brazilian artists. When his American friends visited Rio, it was his custom to present them with some choice bit of Brazilian art as a remembrance of the country.

To say that Brazil appreciated and reciprocated his devotion is to put it mildly. But let Brazil speak for itself.

The *Jornal do Commercio* of April 19 says: "Ambassador Morgan's funeral was a veritable consecration of that distinguished diplomat and friend of Brazil who did so much for American understanding. The vast number of floral wreaths, the homage of the most outstanding figures of Brazilian society . . . the respect and grief of those present, the solemnity of the ceremony . . . all these expressions of veneration brought out most vividly the beauty of that friendship which for so many years the representative of the United States had nurtured in Brazil for the good of both countries. . . ."

In *A Nacão* one reads: "Edwin Morgan was unquestionably a promoter of the indestructible friendship which unites the two countries. He followed a policy which all peoples should follow—the policy of mutual understanding for complete peace. To him, no sacrifice to ensure increasing understanding between two peoples was too great.

In the *Jornal do Brasil*, the Brazilian writer Rosalina Coelho Lisboa says:

"Up to the very last Edwin Morgan . . . continued to devote himself to activities useful to both countries and to promote efforts conducive to fraternal and international understanding . . . So vivid and all-pervading was his consciousness of his own country that he must needs endow this land which was his host with the splendor of his own United States. . . .

"Let no one try to belittle Morgan's work, by evoking the old story of the advantages to be gained by a policy of Brazilian-American approximation. There is a vast difference between the official approximation of peoples and the affectionate and spiritual approximation which has its roots in soil untouched by self-interest.

"Edwin Morgan was in his turn conquered by the land which he had conquered. . . .

"When his task was done, he cast his eyes over the whole world and turning to the land which had stood by him in the stress of duty and in the hours of victory, he gave to it the supreme token of his affection—he chose it for his home. Yesterday, in Petropolis, in the historical Palace of Grão Pará, within those walls which had witnessed the passing of the Brazilian Empire, . . . death came to this foreigner. And upon his tomb, wherever it may be, whether in the land he served or the land in which he won such complete understanding, Brazil will write these words: 'My Friend'."



FOREIGN TRADE OF ARGENTINA FOR 1933

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

IN advance of the Statistical Annual of Foreign Commerce, the Director General of Statistics, Señor Alfredo Lucadamo, has submitted a report to the Minister of Finance, covering the main items of the foreign trade of Argentina for the year 1933.

In this report an important change has been made in the method of presenting the statistics. In previous reports values have been stated in gold pesos, since this method of currency calculation has been used officially in the customs documents, owing to its utilization in the import tariff appraisement, in the export law no. 11274, and in the tables of export appraisement.

But these gold pesos are at present merely nominal, because it is necessary to take into consideration the devaluation of the national currency in the exchange market in order to obtain real values in gold.

Statistics of foreign trade in the future will be expressed in terms of paper pesos. It may be stated, however, that where comparisons with previous reports are required, the figures compiled, both as regards imports and exports, are perfectly homogeneous and effective, as it is only necessary to consider the paper peso as equivalent to 44 centavos gold.

Moreover the calculation of real values will not, according to the report of the Director General of Statistics, cause any risk of confusion, since in former reports the basic values were expressed in paper pesos and then converted to gold pesos at the recognized legal rate.

According to the Director General's report, the imports for the year 1933 were 897,149,000 paper pesos, and the exports 1,120,842,000 pesos, or a total of 2,017,991,000 pesos. The figures for the preceding year were: Imports, 836,265,000 paper pesos; exports, 1,287,782,000 pesos; total, 2,124,047,000 pesos.

These figures, which do not include bullion, show for the year 1933 an increase in imports of 60,884,000 pesos, or 7.3 percent, and a decrease in exports of 166,941,000 pesos, or 13 percent, or a net decrease in total trade of 106,057,000 pesos, or 5 percent.

The imports of coin in 1933 amounted to 104,800 gold pesos and exports to 10,080,000 gold pesos. The figures for 1932 were: Imports 98,000 gold pesos, and exports, 4,990,000 gold pesos.

The balance of trade in favor of the republic for the year 1933 was 223,693,000 paper pesos, and for the year 1932 it was 451,513,000 paper pesos.

IMPORTS

The increase of 60,884,000 paper pesos in imports for the year 1933 does not indicate the true extent of the increase, since the figure represents "real" values, subsequently affected by the flow of market prices. If the fact that prices of imports in 1933 were 3.8 percent less than in 1932 is taken into account, it will be seen that the increase in imports is proportionately higher than the figure referring to "real" values.

For a better understanding of the increase in imports in 1933, it is therefore necessary to compare the "tariff" values which, with slight variations, are the same for the last two years. "Tariff" values of imports in 1933 amounted to 971,495,000 paper pesos, as against 869,770,000 paper pesos in the previous year, an increase of 11.7 percent.

The quantity and "tariff" value of the various classes of commodities imported during the year 1933, compared with those of 1932, were as follows:

*Imports by major classifications for the years 1932 and 1933*¹

[Values in thousands of paper pesos, i. e., 000 omitted]

Classifications	Quantity, metric tons			Tariff values		
	1932	1933	Difference in 1933	1932	1933	Difference in 1933
			Percent			Percent
Alimentary substances.....	259, 851	355, 604	+36. 8	95, 678	108, 624	+13. 5
Tobacco and manufactures.....	7, 198	11, 469	+59. 3	11, 474	16, 933	+47. 6
Beverages.....	8, 475	8, 115	-4. 2	4, 237	3, 917	+7. 5
Textiles and manufactures.....	158, 285	180, 843	+14. 3	232, 568	275, 404	+18. 4
Chemicals and drugs, oils and paints.....	162, 101	165, 809	+2. 3	62, 220	71, 126	+14. 3
Paper, cardboard, and manufactures.....	179, 157	179, 863	+0. 4	51, 535	52, 855	+2. 6
Wood and manufactures.....	333, 926	361, 523	+8. 3	32, 787	36, 280	+10. 6
Iron and steel and manufactures.....	354, 883	457, 014	+28. 8	67, 647	89, 014	+31. 6
Machinery and vehicles.....	48, 984	53, 374	+9. 0	34, 266	36, 477	+6. 4
Metals (excluding iron), and manufactures.....	61, 623	76, 494	+24. 1	31, 419	39, 929	+27. 1
Stones, earths, glass, and ceramics.....	1, 912, 027	1, 572, 883	-17. 7	29, 836	31, 756	+6. 4
Fuel and lubricants.....	3, 462, 382	3, 470, 212	+0. 2	152, 403	138, 210	-9. 3
Rubber and manufactures.....	6, 914	8, 350	+20. 5	22, 024	26, 079	+18. 4
Miscellaneous.....	30, 620	29, 809	-2. 6	41, 676	44, 891	+7. 7
Total imports.....	6, 986, 426	6, 931, 432	-0. 8	869, 770	971, 495	+11. 7

¹ Figures for 1933 are provisional.

The principal countries of import in 1933, in order of their importance, with comparative values for the previous year, were:

*Imports by countries of origin for the years 1932 and 1933*¹

[Values in thousands of paper pesos, i.e., 000 omitted]

Countries	Tariff values		Percent of total	
	1932	1933	1932	1933
United Kingdom.....	177, 491	208, 269	20.4	21.4
United States.....	118, 307	123, 260	13.6	12.7
Germany.....	84, 559	104, 436	9.7	10.8
Italy.....	79, 853	87, 821	9.2	9.0
Brazil.....	48, 746	53, 866	5.6	5.5
India.....	49, 055	52, 700	5.6	5.4
France.....	43, 984	49, 603	5.1	5.1
Belgium.....	32, 724	37, 254	3.8	3.8
Spain.....	30, 097	24, 671	3.5	2.5
Japan.....	14, 188	22, 398	1.6	2.3
Peru.....	17, 723	19, 303	2.0	2.0
Netherlands.....	13, 914	18, 365	1.6	1.9
Sweden.....	11, 015	14, 748	1.3	1.5
Venezuela.....	5, 397	12, 047	0.6	1.2
Paraguay.....	4, 967	11, 803	0.6	1.2
Canada.....	13, 159	11, 414	1.5	1.2
British possessions in Asia.....	8, 227	10, 381	0.9	1.1
Finland.....	5, 531	10, 207	0.6	1.1
Other countries.....	110, 793	98, 949	12.7	10.1
Total imports.....	869, 770	971, 495	100.0	100.0

¹ Figures for 1933 are provisional.

EXPORTS

The decrease of 166,941,000 pesos in the value of exports during 1933, as compared with the previous year, is attributed to declines in the shipments of maize, linseed, and oats, and to the drop in prices which has affected the majority of products in the agricultural and cattle industries.

Quantity and value of exports by groups of products for the years 1932 and 1933 and the percent change are shown in the following table:

*Exports by major classifications for the years 1932 and 1933*¹

[Values in thousands of paper pesos, i.e., 000 omitted]

Classification	Quantity, metric tons			Real values		
	1932	1933	Difference in 1933	1932	1933	Difference in 1933
Livestock products:			<i>Percent</i>			<i>Percent</i>
Live animals.....	34, 159	39, 958	+17.0	5, 671	4, 321	-23.8
Meat.....	574, 226	561, 228	-2.3	193, 284	182, 010	-5.8
Hides.....	134, 118	159, 320	+18.8	61, 116	80, 773	+32.2
Wool.....	131, 488	158, 729	+20.7	75, 639	93, 852	+24.0
Dairy products.....	43, 852	38, 074	-13.2	29, 377	20, 615	-29.8
Offal and by-products.....	159, 927	193, 439	+21.0	28, 317	35, 541	+25.5
Total.....	1, 077, 770	1, 150, 748	+6.8	393, 424	417, 112	+6.0
Agricultural products:						
Cereals and linseed.....	395, 487	468, 331	+18.4	21, 010	22, 006	+4.7
Wheat flour and middlings.....	192, 000	183, 696	-4.3	23, 138	22, 409	-3.1
Other agricultural products.....	13, 759, 911	11, 442, 252	-16.8	803, 877	602, 612	-25.0
Total.....	14, 347, 398	12, 094, 279	-15.7	848, 025	647, 027	-23.7
Forest products.....	256, 958	327, 436	+27.4	27, 929	33, 434	+19.7
Miscellaneous.....	143, 471	204, 144	+42.3	18, 404	23, 269	+26.4
Total exports.....	15, 825, 597	13, 776, 607	-12.9	1, 287, 782	1, 120, 841	-13.0

¹ Figures for 1933 are provisional.

The principal countries of export in 1932 and 1933, in the order of their importance, were:

*Exports by countries of destination for the years 1932 and 1933*¹

[Values in thousands of paper pesos, i.e., 000 omitted]

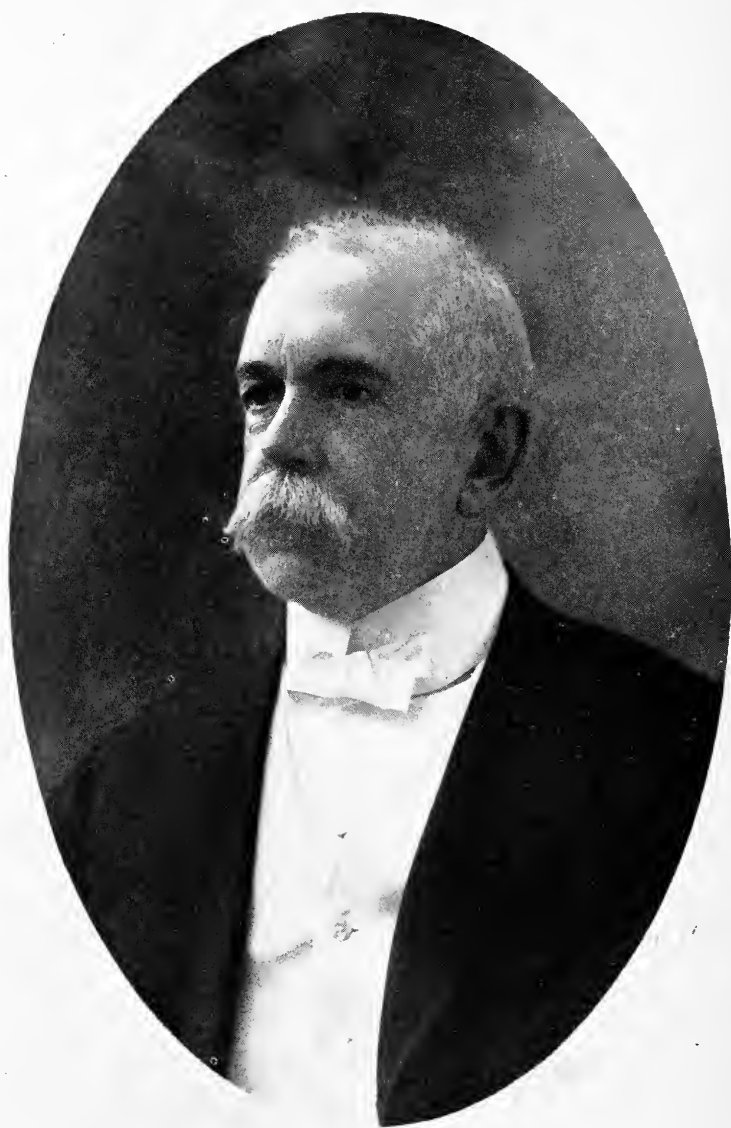
Countries	Real values		Percent of total	
	1932	1933	1932	1933
United Kingdom.....	454,959	388,681	36.1	34.7
Belgium.....	141,110	104,112	11.0	9.2
Netherlands.....	161,081	91,822	12.5	8.2
United States.....	43,859	86,001	3.4	7.7
Germany.....	112,664	81,889	8.7	7.3
France.....	118,671	67,638	9.2	6.0
Brazil.....	20,780	46,886	1.6	4.2
Italy.....	69,095	43,453	5.4	3.9
Sweden.....	20,322	15,445	1.6	1.4
Uruguay.....	7,167	12,940	0.6	1.2
Greece.....	190	11,312	(2)	1.0
Norway.....	14,762	11,127	1.1	1.0
Denmark.....	27,284	8,984	2.1	0.8
Spain.....	27,407	8,576	2.1	0.8
China.....	729	8,352	0.1	0.7
Paraguay.....	6,412	7,616	0.5	0.7
Chile.....	6,978	7,355	0.5	0.7
Irish Free State.....	17,093	6,452	1.3	0.6
Japan.....	1,912	4,915	0.1	0.4
Canada.....	1,625	4,890	0.1	0.4
On orders.....	254	³ 72,252	(2)	6.4
Other countries.....	23,428	30,144	1.8	2.6
Total exports.....	1,287,782	1,120,842	100.0	100.0

¹ Figures for 1933 are provisional.

² Less than one tenth of 1 percent.

³ Figure represents "on orders" for part of October, November and December, not yet apportioned to countries of destination.





ENRIQUE JOSÉ VARONA.

The death of this noted Cuban educator, writer, and statesman on November 19, 1933, occasioned a tribute from the Seventh International Conference of American States.

ENRIQUE JOSÉ VARONA: A TRIBUTE¹

By Dr. MANUEL MÁRQUEZ STERLING

Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Cuba in the United States

HAVING been invited to pay, in this ceremony which is prompted by both kindness and justice, the meed of admiration inspired in me by the noble personality of Dr. Enrique José Varona, I beg to express my deep gratitude to this well-known Institute which has offered me its rostrum for the honor which my country receives and for the courtesy to which I am indebted for the privilege of participating, with humble but heartfelt eulogy, in this consecration—for that is what I take the liberty of calling it—of a supreme mind, exalted by the gift of speech.

I must go back to the middle of the last century, and to an old Cuban city in the center of the colony, to find the cradle of the leader to whom this ceremony is dedicated. It is a city as old as the colony itself, one which was, according to the golden legends of our forefathers, a happy Arcady, fortunately inhabited by kind-hearted aristocrats, wealthy landed proprietors and masters of numerous slaves, then considered by short-sighted economists to be the indispensable tools of the wealth abounding in all parts of that region and

¹ Address delivered April 25, 1934, at the George Washington University, Washington, D.C., on the occasion of a joint meeting of the Center of Inter-American Studies of that University and the Inter-American Forum, as a tribute to the memory of Enrique José Varona, on whose death the Seventh International Conference of American States extended a vote of condolence to Cuba.

Enrique José Varona y Pera was born on April 13, 1849, in Camagüey. He was educated at the Colegio de San Francisco and the University of Habana, where he received his doctorate in philosophy and letters, fields in which he made a lasting impression in his native land.

Although during Cuba's colonial period he represented the Province of Camagüey in the Spanish Cortes, he was a proponent of revolution, carrying on his activities both in Cuba and in New York. At the beginning of 1900, after the bonds uniting Cuba with Spain had been severed he was appointed Secretary of Public Instruction, a position which he held for nearly two and one-half years. One of the most important measures taken during that period was the reorganization of the University of Habana, an institution to which his allegiance never faltered. To him too belongs the credit of proposing that it be removed from the old inadequate buildings to its present beautiful site. In 1919 he was elected Vice President of the Republic, but resigned the following year.

In the autumn of 1930, in honor of the fiftieth anniversary of the first course in philosophy given by Varona at the University of Habana (June 1, 1880), the publication of his bibliography, compiled by Fermín Peraza y Sarausa, was begun in the *Revista Bimestre Cubana*. It contains a total of 1,880 items, an amazing figure even when it is realized that there is some duplication because reprints and collected articles are listed separately; the entries are made chronologically, and the variety of subject matter is no less remarkable. In the collection appear books, pamphlets, fugitive pieces; there is poetry, the form in which his literary talents were first displayed; there is narration; there are translations, including those of such widely different authors as Bret Harte, Heine, and Turgenieff; there are his famous lectures on philosophy given at the university; there are discourses on history, literature, sociology, politics; there are newspaper articles—editorials, literary criticism, interviews, even letters to the editor—; in fact, it is difficult to imagine any field of writing which his prolific pen did not adorn.

It was as a teacher, however, that Varona made the great impression on contemporary life. At his death, November 19, 1933, all Cuba was united in a common grief at the great loss she had sustained. Ten thousand students passed by his bier to pay their last respects to their beloved and indomitable master.—EDITOR.

in all the regions of the colony, where there was openly developing the revolutionary eagerness to win, as a more beneficent wealth, the rights which would change patriots from proprietors into free men and from subjects into citizens. Among the multitude was the anonymous insurgent in open conflict with the timid or vacillating men who, to his mind, took shelter like sheep in the fold; and soon bloodshed accompanied the failures of conspiracies organized with heroic guilelessness, while the heart of the dreamers shed its magic essence on the soul of the Republic's founders.

Created by the fatal experiences of the revolutionary martyrs, the leader became a reality in the colony. A group of his disciples, who followed him blindly, was formed with great enthusiasm in the immortal city of Bayamo which, like Saguntum, perished in flames rather than surrender. Of that breed were the provincial aristocrats, the owners of the latifundia, the sugar and coffee princes, masters and shepherds at the same time, who fought and died for liberty, and transformed their fields, running over with fruit, into battlefields. Immediately, in a gay village walled with palms, they wrote the Magna Carta of the State, created a congress, named a president and a commander in chief, and went out to fight a hundred battles.

Varona was barely nineteen at the time, and was enjoying a local reputation for ability in the study of philosophy and in the cultivation of letters, which later were to serve him as a refuge from disillusionment and as an admirable vehicle for expressing his ideals and his hopes. Therefore he did not appear, to the displeasure of his contemporaries, among the ardent men who flocked to the rebel ranks, through the exceptional but not unique circumstance that the complicated and romantic studies of the poet and of the soldier were incompatible in his spirit. In different tragic stages the war, which was waged without quarter, decimated homes, divided the patriots into irreconcilable parties, and exhausted the sources, never full or overflowing, which had provided the ragged armies of independence with war supplies and enthusiasm. After the Republic had been destroyed and the colony, although condemned by destiny to extinction, still proved to be alive, peace was subscribed to in a very strange capitulation which, after ten years of fighting, promised literally "forgetfulness of the past."

Was forgetfulness the essential basis, or perhaps the only one, for obtaining the future welfare of the Cuban people and maintaining forever their connections with the mother country? It was the poet's turn to maintain exactly the opposite. In the mind of Varona, the cause of independence grew strong with the indomitable energy which every sincere conviction gains in the soul of a philosopher. It was not that he had corrected any errors of judgment; nor was it, nor should it be thought, that disaster suddenly awoke in him affection for a free country, if indeed such affection had been asleep; nor was it a ques-

tion—quite the contrary—of a strange extraversion aroused by circumstances. The deep-seated urge which had strengthened the arms of the brave combatants persistently influenced the meditations of the philosopher and the hymns of the poet. Cuba instinctively fought in order not to yield to the political and economic effects of the decadence in which the mother country seemed to be sinking. She dreamed, secretly, of enjoying the natural advantages of her youth, and of attaining, without the conflict latent in different traditions, economic greatness, lay culture, and intellectual initiative.

In the period immediately after the war, Varona's powerful talent reached an admirable maturity; and the new generation which surged to the lists saw in him a leader of a high intellectual order. He devoted himself, in order to make a living, to teaching and journalism; he widened tremendously the sphere of his studies; and his position as a thinker, even at that time was, as he summed it up, that of "an atom touched with the reasoning mania." His *Conferencias Filosóficas* (Philosophical Lectures) ranked him as an extremely learned expositor whose rare insight made original contributions to knowledge, and won for him the unselfish praise of European critics, who called him "the professed champion of experimental philosophy", and included him among the most zealous disciples of Herbert Spencer. He missed in the ideas of psychology, as then taught by the professors in our institutes, the *idées-forces* of Fouillée, the explanations of perception by John Stuart Mill, and even went so far as to complain bitterly because the modest teachers in the Colony did not know the greatest French psychologist, Maine de Biran, and the English associationists dear to Varona. But those pages in which he poured out his knowledge with the desire of finding kindred spirits and of increasing it, are today hardly representative of his first scientific affiliation, and he himself, with delightful modesty, called them, a third of a century later, entertainment for his cheerful and insatiable curiosity. He confessed that neither schools of philosophy nor those of religion could confine him within narrow bounds, and he boasted of keeping as a precious gift of youth a deep love of art.

In the forgetfulness of the past, which the dying Republic had deceptively agreed upon, it was impossible to prevent some patriots, in a subterranean war against peace, from preparing, in spite of more or less discreet compromises, to rehabilitate the Separatist Party, which was resuscitated by the Word of Manuel Sanguily, exalted by the genius of the martyr of Dos Ríos, and justified by the reasoning and the logic of Varona. Nevertheless, this unfathomable philosopher said afterward that our history is not history but an epic and that our deeds were not deeds but exploits. "Only through duty", he added, "did I serve my country in its tremendous struggles for

independence and in the laborious years of its organization as a modern nation." Although he was Secretary of the Treasury and of Public Instruction, professor of logic in the university, head of the Conservative Party, and Vice-President of the Republic, his important work all during our emancipation, which at times he saw changed into a mockery of empty institutions, was to spread the principles and the ideas best fitted to be the pattern for our social and political needs, avoiding the two greatest dangers which from the beginning have lain in wait for us—dictatorship and license.

A citizen scrupulous for the honor and advantage of his country could do nothing better than point out the path of virtue to those who were governing and warn them how near they were to the abyss and that the tempest was threatening for the morrow. The passions of rival groups did not move him to utter bold predictions. He observed events from the heights whence he could see clearly, and poured out his own interpretation in a delicate prose, exquisitely classic in flavor, firm, suave, terse, free from hyperbole and redundancy. He always disclosed the roots of the evil afflicting us, without causing alarm or pain to his readers. Truth is the remedy for this kind of complaint and the desire which consumed and preoccupied him was solely to convince. The man who has been convinced never errs.

Was he, after all, a pessimist who awaited anxiously in his golden patriot's tower the moment of the shipwreck which no one dared avert? He would deny it, with ready testimony, if he could return to the dawn of our independence, if through a pious miracle of the gods we should find ourselves on the morning when he saw for the first time floating over the free city the flag of our country, like a flower of hope, and heard a voice saying: "Rise, rise, banner of our country; gleam like the sun which dissipates the shadows of terror and ignominy; open thy folds like wings to shelter hearts made gentle by grief and enlarged by well-earned victory; extend thy stripes, like an eternal rainbow of peace and goodness, over this earth stained by crime and purified by sacrifice. Rise, rise, banner of Cuba, and let thy red, displayed as the symbol of our martyrdom, stanch forever the country's wounds." Even in a more distant period, constructive words and affirmations are to be found in the work of Varona. "However narrow our horizon may have been," he used to exclaim in moments of political ineptitude, "it was illumined by the light of the ideal, marking it out to the future generations."

A young writer of great promise in the world of letters, José de la Luz León, has accused me, however, together with two illustrious and versatile writers, of having spread in the Cuban mind the mistaken belief that Varona was saddened by a deep and incurable pessimism,

by coupling him with Schopenhauer or with Hartmann or with Leopardi, although the Cuban master never ceased to be "a man full of faith and devoured by fears; a moving spirit, a jubilant sower whose strength increased before the blind obstinacy of obstacles."

My kindly accuser had been delving in yellowed papers a third of a century old, and had come across a chapter in which I was lamenting the withdrawal of the philosopher in the face of the doubtful prospect of the early government, which had done much that was good and, wounded by bitter opposition, was inclined to produce discontent through errors which would later on become a pernicious precedent. The philosopher seemed bent on separating himself from all contact with society and with politics, and his appearance gave me the impression of the sage who goes from dread to scepticism and from scepticism to dread. Had Varona been a little less of a philosopher, I said, he would have been the personification of Cuban ideals, the right arm of the Republic. Had he been a little more accessible, he would have won, with the admiration which no one could deny him, the love of his nation. Had he had a few more illusions, existence would have been pleasant for him among the houses of cards built by the lyricism then in vogue. "I am", my disrespectful phantasy made him say, "the happiest of men, although perhaps people do not believe it. Aristotle, Plato, and I have agreed that the pleasures of the intellect, the fruit of the contemplative life, give the highest degree of felicity." For his portrait, I added, the brush of Rubens would not have served as well as the pen of Gladstone. Varona is a universal personality escaped from the gallery of great men drawn by the unforgettable English statesman. Gladstone would have divined in his soul the reverse of the dogmatism of Blanco White who, according to that critic, hovered in a region even more ethereal than that of Ariel's song. In the story of his mind, Gladstone would have divined the precocity, not the pessimism, of Leopardi. The philosopher, the poet, the critic would have passed in an ecstatic excursion of thought through a nation of supermen who might have been named Tennyson, Wedgwood, Macleod. . . . Finally, I mentioned that some months before we had been passing through the ruins of Camagüey together, and the philosopher pointed out the historic spots where he had spent his childhood. "Here", he said to me, "my father was born; there my mother. . . . In that school I learned to read." These words, the simplest he ever uttered in his life, came from his lips with ineffable tenderness. "Montoro missed by a word being the foremost of the revolutionaries", I thought; "for Varona to be the foremost statesman of the Republic there is only missing among the chapters of his distinguished story the brief and moving incident of a tear."

But José de la Luz León wished to elucidate the point by begging from the master's inexhaustible springs his intimate confidences. Here is a beautiful fragment from what might be called the intellectual testament of Varona:

"Am I a pessimist?" he replied. "You have seen that clearly. In the face of the corruption of our public men and the apathy of a great part of the people, I have felt disconcerted. Through weakness of spirit? Perhaps; but principally because I had held my patriotic ideal very high. This attitude is not in accord with my years? True; but my heart has voluntarily shut its eyes to the bitter lessons of experience. As far as theory goes, I have been and am a sceptic rather than a pessimist. Temperamentally I have retreated before every categorical statement. I do not apologize. I confess. The poetic ferment of my spirit has made me wander, I dare not say soar, through diverse regions. I have wished to feel everything. And I have not had the wings of Faust transfigured before the radiant vision of Helen."

In the last years of his active life, he put to the test the unfading freshness of his heart and of his brain; and the dictatorship from which Cuba was still suffering had no more resolute judge than Varona, an octogenarian but still in command of all his powers. To his home, which the gospel of liberty held an inviolable sanctuary, Cuban youth flocked to receive with the example of his civic integrity his high-minded counsel. In the circle surrounding him the revolution kindled its implacable fires, and he watched, exhausted with grief, a sight more distressing than his imagination had ever conceived. Grief was changed at last into the gentlest delight in his disciples. The ground trembled in spasms of rage and did not find its level. Scourged and mocked, the Republic was being drowned in blood. And the philosopher who was dying in his sanctuary, evoked, perhaps because his thoughts were filled with memories, the epic lyre of his glorious youth:

Where goest thou, trembling and frightened,
Thy countenance pallid haunted with dread?
—To see how men meet their last moment,
When offered to duty blood floweth red.

Why goest thou thoughtful, mid grave pits
Where no willow weeps and no cypress stands?
—To mourn for the heroes who lie there,
Anonymous dust their once noble bands.

Where goest thou, darksome thy forehead,
Compressed thy firm mouth, and panting thy steed?
—To spit on the groveling nations
Abasing themselves to tyrannical greed.

SOCIAL SERVICE IN CHILE

By LÉO CORDÉMANS DE BRAY

Director of the School of Social Service, Santiago

THE idea of social service was first brought to Chile in 1924 by Dr. René Sand, who came to give a series of lectures in the University of Chile, in the course of which he sowed the good seed of modern ideas in this field of human welfare. A few months later Dr. Ismael Valdés Valdés, President of the Charity Board and Dr. Alejandro del Río, Director General of Charity and Social Welfare, made a journey to Europe especially to study the organization of social service schools and, after coming to the conclusion that the Belgian methods of training social workers were best adapted to Chile, they engaged a Belgian woman to found and direct in Santiago the first social service school in South America. This was in 1926.

From that time on, the School of Social Service has functioned uninterruptedly. It has constantly endeavored to improve its methods, bearing in mind not only how its graduates may be most useful in modern forms of social service but also how they can best perfect this service. The course of study has therefore been revised several times.

No student is accepted unless she has completed the third year of the secondary school, has good health, and is between twenty and forty years of age. The first two months in school are a trial period in which the student's scholastic ability and character are closely observed in order to see whether she is adapted to the work. Especially must she have initiative, sympathy, and a sense of responsibility. The elimination of applicants at the end of this period permits the principal to choose those who are best fitted for the work and who give the greatest promise of success.

The length of the course is two and a half years, in accordance with the custom of the best schools of social service in other countries. The theoretical work is enriched by reading and research in the specialized library of the school. This contains twelve hundred volumes and receives regularly eighty reviews in different languages.

Among the subjects offered are: Civics, statistics and bookkeeping, French, English, social medicine, elocution, composition, psychology, case work, legal procedure, labor legislation, mental hygiene, nutrition, adolescent and child psychology, labor and wage problems, political and social economy, social theory, and vocational guidance. These courses are of university grade, the majority being taught by professors in the University of Chile.



THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE, SANTIAGO, CHILE.

Since its establishment in 1926 the school has become an important influence in the betterment of social conditions in Chile.

The practice work is done in the social service section and the settlement attached to the school. The former is devoted to the practical teaching of social case-work. Cases of special educational value, graduated in difficulty according to the experience of the student, are therefore chosen for the pupils, who are directed and counseled in their handling of each case. The social service section now has records of eleven hundred fifty cases, some of which have been under supervision for several years. They therefore give details affording excellent teaching material as well as a documentation of the mode of life of the Chilean poor. This office is organized in the same way

as are the well-known social agencies in American cities, their procedure being adapted to Chilean conditions. In the summer semester the students are lent to social welfare institutions of high standing.

About a year and a half ago the school organized a settlement where small children, older boys and girls, and grown people living in the vicinity might find a center for recreation and constructive activities. Located on the edge of a public park and having a large garden and playground, it is a very attractive place where the students in the school pass an apprenticeship in group social service.

Under the auspices of the Chilean Association of Mental Hygiene a behavior clinic will soon be established in the school, thus expanding the scope of its experiments.

The idea of social service has been warmly welcomed in Chile. The directors of public and private institutions, physicians and public officials have given it sympathetic understanding. One proof of this fact is that there are at present one hundred and fifteen social workers engaged professionally.

Since the school was established there have been 136 graduates, occupied as follows:

	San- tiago	Prov- inces	Total		San- tiago	Prov- inces	Total
Hospitals.....	21	4	25	Public health centers.....	2	0	2
Workers' insurance.....	9	5	14	Agriculture.....	1	0	1
Child health centers.....	8	0	8	Cheap housing.....	1	0	1
Asylums.....	8	0	8	Pawnshop.....	1	0	1
Protection of minors.....	5	3	8	School social service.....	1	0	1
Industrial enterprises.....	5	2	7				115
Prisons.....	5	1	6				
Maternity hospitals.....	6	0	6	Employed but not in social service.....	6	0	6
Social service school.....	5	0	5	Not desiring employment.....	12	1	13
Inspection of the employ- ment of women.....	4	1	5	Abroad.....	2	0	2
Unemployment problems.....	4	0	4	Deaths.....	3	0	3
Social service secretaries to public officials.....	4	0	4	Unemployed.....	12	0	12
Emergency medical service.....	3	0	3				151
Police.....	2	1	3				
Cities.....	1	1	2				

¹ The total of this table is greater than the number of graduate social workers for the reason that thirteen students are already employed and three graduates have two positions each.

HOSPITALS

All the Santiago hospitals have social service departments coordinated under the direction of an inspector of medical social service, whose work consists in guiding the workers and making the service more and more progressive and useful. It is to be hoped that an improvement in the economic situation will make possible an increase in the number of social workers in each district so that each may have in her charge the hundred beds recognized as the standard in the United States. At present the average number of beds under the care of one worker in Santiago is 238. This number is excessive, especially when one takes into account the constant turnover of

patients and the necessity of work in the clinics which function in connection with the hospitals. It is, therefore, impossible for a worker to become acquainted with all the patients and to follow each one after he leaves the hospital until he and his family are completely readjusted to normal life. At present the best she can do is to attend to the patients who are indicated by a physician or a nurse or who come to her of their own accord.

The provincial hospitals have also welcomed the idea of employing a social worker, and several superintendents have promised their cooperation.

The functions of the workers in maternity hospitals and public health centers are very similar to hospital social service.

CHILD HEALTH CENTERS

In every child-health center in Santiago a social welfare worker is in close and regular contact with the families of the babies registered. She devotes special attention to the young mother and the unmarried mother, in order to be sure that nothing prevents them from following the suggestions of the physician. Often on her periodical visits to the home she gives helpful instructions of one kind or another, advising how to make better use of the family budget, encouraging a father to give up drinking, or assisting in some way the other children in the family. During the present depression the majority of homes have economic problems which the social worker is likely to be called upon to help settle.

SCHOOLS

Forced economies have brought about a decrease in the number of social workers in primary schools. For a number of years they had watched over the health and physical and moral welfare of school children, forming a means of contact between the school and home and often educating parents to a better understanding and guidance of their children. It may be said without exaggeration that in many cases opportune intervention on the part of a social worker has kept a child from delinquency. Her advice has also assured proper care to the child in poor health.

A social worker has recently organized a student-welfare department in the University of Chile, devoting special attention to women students from Santiago and from the provinces, to those who have scholarships, and in general to all student activities. This service, which is still in its infancy, will undoubtedly develop in many directions, for it is unhampered by precedent and enjoys great popularity in the university. [A more complete description of this may be found in the *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for December 1933.]

WORKERS' INSURANCE

All the workers' insurance clinics in Santiago have several social workers who specialize in the sections devoted to prospective mothers, child welfare, and tuberculosis. They visit all the persons who come to the office of the insurance board to make use of the benefits offered by that organization, and they help to solve economic, psychological, and other problems so as to assure the most efficient utilization of the help given by the insurance board in the form of medical attention or money. In the section for prospective mothers, the social worker makes a special effort to instruct the patient and to smooth over all



STUDENTS AT THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE.

The director of the school, Madame de Bray, is seated in the center of the group.

difficulties arising because of her condition; in the child welfare section she encourages the mother to nurse the child and to care for it according to the doctor's instructions; and in the antituberculosis section she helps to see that everything possible is done so that the patient may live under conditions favorable to recovery and not become a focus of infection.

[Under the compulsory insurance law of 1924, insured workers are entitled to medical attention from the first day of the illness, including hospitalization at the doctor's orders; a grant of money during the time of incapacity, to be paid from the fifth day of illness or, if the illness lasts more than a week, from the beginning; professional attention

for women during pregnancy and childbirth, with the payment of 50 percent of their salary for the first 3 weeks after childbirth and 25 percent while nursing the child; 300 pesos for the family of the assured in case of death, for funeral expenses; an incapacity pension in cases not compensated by law, provided that the incapacity was not the result of any intentional or criminal act; and a pension for those 65 years of age who have been insured under the law for at least 15 years.]

WORKERS' HOUSING

The depression has brought about a decrease in this branch of work, which until a short time ago engaged the services of ten or more social



A CHILD HEALTH CENTER, SANTIAGO.

Maintaining regular contacts with the families of children registered at the various child health centers of Santiago is but one of the numerous activities in which graduate social workers are engaged.

workers. Now there is only one. Each of them had in her charge a worker's suburb or subdivision where she aided the residents to live under healthful conditions in accordance with their means. Undoubtedly this service will be renewed and developed to a much greater extent when circumstances permit.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN

The use of social workers as inspectors of the employment of women has given a new trend to such inspection. These social workers, besides enforcing the law, have been able to point out to members of Congress faults and deficiencies in existing labor legislation, and have

also often been able to compose individual difficulties between employers and employees.

INDUSTRIAL ENTERPRISES

Although a depression is an unfavorable time for the extension of social work in industry, some important enterprises, such as the newspaper *La Nación*, the coal mines at Lota, the sugar refinery at Viña del Mar, the State Railways, and the army shops have employed social workers specializing in employees' welfare. They have organized group activities, such as day nurseries, cooperatives, centers for recreation and sports, and clean-up campaigns. They also visit all sick employees and those who ask for leave of absence or money advances, since such requests may arise from remediable situations. The fact that the worker who lives in a satisfactory home has a greater productive capacity has been grasped by the employers organizing these services.

AGRICULTURE

One foresees the time when the owners of vast agricultural lands will follow the example of factory owners and take more account of the welfare of their men. Although at present there is only one social worker engaged in this task, it is worth while to draw attention to its possibilities, for on many of the enormous estates in Chile there are several thousand persons, including the families of the laborers.

UNEMPLOYMENT

It is regrettable that the number of social workers actively engaged in service for the unemployed should be small. This has been one reason why measures taken against unemployment have been largely experimental, without the constructive value which they should have had.

It should be mentioned, however, that the President of the Republic, the Minister of Labor, the Mayor of Santiago, and other prominent officials have felt the necessity of having a specialist decide on the numerous requests for aid which are constantly reaching them.

PRISONS

The social workers engaged in this branch of service visit the prisons regularly and receive the requests of the prisoners. They also visit each prisoner's family and try to remedy as far as possible the distress brought about by his absence. Often they seek to find him a suitable job and to assure him of understanding treatment in his own home, thus preventing conditions which may again be conducive to delinquency.

DELINQUENT CHILDREN

The social worker connected with the Bureau of the Protection of Delinquent Children studies all cases that come before the Judge of the Juvenile Court, giving special attention to the social background of the child, and the causes which led to his becoming a problem. She suggests measures for re-education, and the judge pronounces his decision after considering her recommendations. If a minor is released on probation, the social worker has the duty of planning his activities



A GROUP OF SOCIAL WORKERS.

Three labor inspectors and a hospital social worker at Valparaiso. Two of the women are graduates of the School of Social Service.

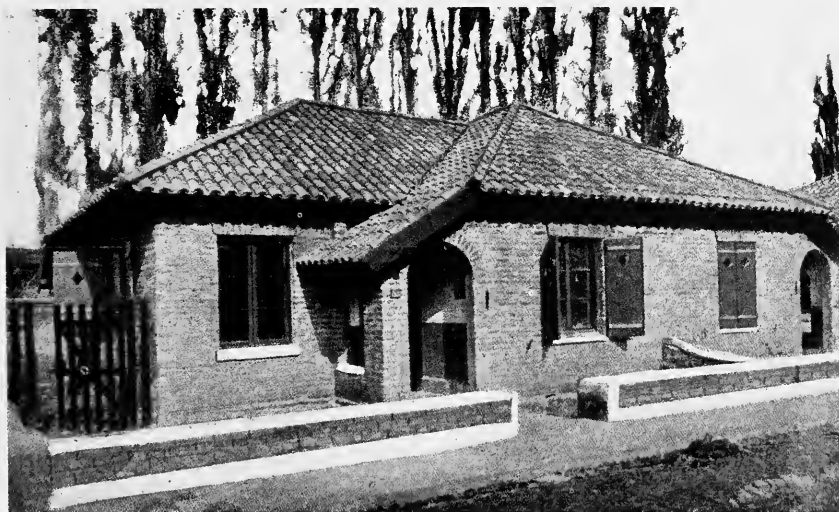
so that his anti-social tendencies shall be corrected and replaced by others which will prepare him for a happy and useful future.

PAWNSHOPS

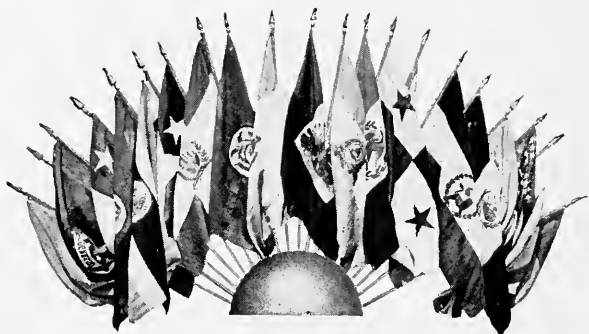
An interesting step was taken by the National Pawnshop in refusing to accept any sewing machine as a pledge without the approval of a social worker. She is thus often able to help settle a temporary difficulty without depriving a worker of a very useful tool. The pawnshop also gives special facilities to working women desiring to buy a sewing machine on the installment plan, the purchase being made under the supervision of the social worker. In the course of her numerous visits to homes the worker is frequently enabled to help the family in general.

CONCLUSION

The future of social service in Chile is very encouraging. In recent congresses on free medical assistance and workers' insurance the speakers were unanimous in requesting that social service should be increased in their respective fields. Various public entities, such as the Bureau of Public Health, the University, and the Ministry of Public Education, provided in their 1934 budget for more social workers. Social welfare under private auspices is following the same trend. An improvement in the economic situation may therefore be expected to bring about a considerable expansion in social service, for its basic concepts are winning more disciples every day among the lovers of progress.



A WORKER'S HOUSE, SANTIAGO.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Pan American Day addresses.—Four members of the Governing Board made Pan American Day addresses. The chairman, Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, spoke at the concert at the Pan American Union; his address is given in full on pages. The Minister of Panama, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, spoke at Ohio State University, Columbus; the Minister of Uruguay, Señor Don José Richling, before the Pan American Society and the College of the City of New York; and the Minister of Costa Rica, Señor Don Manuel González Zeledón, at Goucher College, Baltimore. Dr. Luis Churión, Counselor of the Venezuelan Legation, also spoke at Goucher College.

Special conferences.—The Governing Board of the Pan American Union on May 2 considered the programs of a number of special inter-American conferences which will be held in the near future.

The Board had before it a project of program for the Inter-American Bibliographic Conference which will meet at Habana in November 1934. It was decided to transmit this project of program to the Government of Cuba for use in drawing up the definitive agenda of the conference.

Consideration was also given to the program of the Second Inter-American Conference on Agriculture and the Pan American Housing Congress. The Agricultural Conference will meet in Mexico City in 1935 and the Congress on Housing, which was provided for by resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States, will convene at Buenos Aires on a date to be determined by the Government of Argentina.

Aviation conference at Panama.—At the suggestion of the Government of Panama the Governing Board decided that the Inter-American Aviation Commission should meet at Panama in January or February 1935, the precise date to be determined by the Govern-

ment of that country. This commission was created by the Seventh International Conference of American States for the purpose of considering the means of giving additional encouragement to inter-American aviation by the establishment of a line of radio stations, beacons, and airdromes. The Governing Board had previously designated Panama as the seat of the commission, and the action of the May meeting was intended to fix the date on which the commission should convene.

Provision was also made for a meeting at Rio de Janeiro of an inter-American geographic congress as provided for in a resolution adopted at the Seventh International Conference of American States. This conference will be convened by the Government of Brazil, which will also fix the exact date of meeting. The geographic congress will be expected to appoint a permanent committee on fluvial navigation to determine the possibility of eliminating obstacles to river navigation on the American continent.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

The following list has been compiled from the books received during the past month:

La obra de Rojas; xxv años de labor literaria. [Buenos Aires, Juan Roldán y cía., 1928] 591 p. ports. 21 cm. [A collection of articles on Ricardo Rojas, the well-known Argentine writer, educator, and critic, and on his works; it was published on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the appearance of his first book, *La Victoria del hombre*, under the auspices of the *Comisión nacional de homenaje a Ricardo Rojas*.]

A tentative bibliography of Colombian literature, by Sturgis E. Leavitt . . . and Carlos García-Prada. . . . Cambridge, Mass., Harvard university press, 1934. 80 p. 24 cm. [One of a series of bibliographies of Spanish-American literature published under the auspices of the Harvard council on Hispano-American studies.]

Obras poéticas de don Miguel Antonio Caro. . . . Edición oficial, dirigida por Víctor E. Caro. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. 309 p. 22 cm. Contents: Musa militante.—Satiras.—Lira cristiana. [The second volume of poetical works of this distinguished Colombian literary figure—who died in 1909 after having served his country in several public offices, including the Presidency from 1895 to 1898—collected and published with interesting notes by Víctor E. Caro.]

Los municipios cubanos a través de la jurisprudencia. Tomo II. Contiene la ley de impuestos municipales y procedimiento de cobranza, con todas las sentencias del Tribunal supremo, las consultas de la Secretaría de gobernación y las últimas disposiciones dictadas sobre la misma, con formularios de expedientes de apremio, comentarios y notas aclaratorias, por el Dr. Augusto Venegas Muiña . . . y Augusto Venegas Pazos. . . . La Habana, Jesús Montero, 1934. 359 p. 24 cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, volumen XII.)

Por la abolición del castigo capital; la pena de muerte en la legislación de guerra, por Juan J. E. Casasús. Primera edición. La Habana, Jesús Montero, 1934. 144 p. 24 cm. (Biblioteca jurídica de autores cubanos y extranjeros, volumen XIII.)

Martí, el apóstol, por Jorge Mañach. . . . Primera edición. Madrid [etc.] Espasa-Calpe, s.a., 1933. 319 p. front. (port.), facsim. 19 cm. (Vidas españolas e hispanoamericanas del siglo XIX. [tomo] 32) [A new biography of the Cuban patriot written by the present Secretary of public instruction and fine arts of Cuba. This is the seventh in this series of studies to treat of Spanish-Americans or Spaniards in Latin America, the others being Bolívar, Carlos Manuel de Céspedes, San Martín, Domingo F. Sarmiento, General Prim, Spanish emissary to Mexico and at one time Governor of Puerto Rico, and Padre Francisco Castañeda.]

Los últimos siete años [por] Óscar Efrén Reyes. Quito, Talleres gráficos nacionales, 1933. volumen 1: 201 p. plates. 21 cm. Contents: Capítulo I: El Ecuador en 1924.—Capítulo II: Lo que fué el "Gobierno plural".—Capítulo III: La Presidencia provisional de 1926 a 1928.—Capítulo IV: Verdades y espejismos del progreso. [A study of recent Ecuadorean history and political conditions.]

A tentative bibliography of the belles-lettres of Ecuador, by Guillermo Rivera. . . . Cambridge, Mass., Harvard university press, 1934. 76 p. 24 cm. [Another of the series of bibliographies of Spanish-American literature published under the auspices of the Harvard council on Hispano-American studies.]

Discursos, artículos y poesías [por] Alberto Uelés. [Tegucigalpa, Imprenta Calderón, 1933]. 2 v. 23 cm. [A collection of speeches, articles, and poems written since 1877 by this eminent Honduran.]

Pintura mexicana (1800-60) [por] Roberto Montenegro. México [Talleres tipográficos de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores] 1933. 19 p. 67 plates (5 col.) 27½ cm. [Album of paintings of the first half of the nineteenth century, especially of those of the portrait painter José María Estrada, with an introduction by Señor Montenegro, a contemporary Mexican artist.]

Tres siglos de arquitectura colonial. México, Talleres gráficos de la nación, 1933. xv p. 150 plates. 24 cm. (Publicaciones de la Secretaría de educación pública. Departamento de monumentos, Dirección de monumentos coloniales.) [Valuable album showing reference illustrations of civil and religious architecture of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries, some of which the government has been restoring recently.] Also published by Appleton-Century Co., New York.

Monumentos arqueológicos de México. México, Talleres gráficos de la nación, 1933. xiv p. 150 plates, map. 24 cm. (Publicaciones de la Secretaría de educación pública. Departamento de monumentos, Dirección de monumentos prehispánicos.) [Similar album showing illustrations of archaeological remains throughout the country, many of which the government is restoring.] Also published by Appleton-Century Co., New York.

Algo sobre la posición de México en Montevideo [por] J. M. Puig Casauranc. México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1934. Primer folleto: 99 p. 24 cm. (Del México actual [publicaciones de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores] núm. 13.) [The work of Mexico in the Seventh International Conference of American States.]

Antología paraguaya [por] José Rodríguez Alcalá. Asunción, Talleres nacionales de H. Kraus, 1910. 163 p. 21 cm. [Poems of 27 Paraguayan poets of the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries with brief biographies.]

Diccionario histórico biográfico del Perú, formado y redactado por Manuel de Mendiburu. Segunda edición con adiciones y notas bibliográficas publicada por Evaristo San Cristóbal. . . . Lima, Librería e imprenta Gil, s.a., 1933. t. vii: 508 p. 23 cm. [A revision of the edition originally published in Lima in 1874-1900.]

Modern Hispanic America, edited by A. Curtis Wilgus. With a foreword by Cloyd Heck Marvin. Washington, D.C., The George Washington university press, 1933. 630 p. 23 cm. (George Washington university. Center of Inter-American studies. Studies in Hispanic American affairs. Volume 1.) [A collection of the lectures in the fields of Hispanic American history, culture, and international relations, delivered at the George Washington university during the summer session of 1932. The list of lecturers includes A. Curtis Wilgus, Mary Wilhelmine Williams, N. Andrew N. Cleven, Clarence F. Jones, Charles D. Kepner, Jr., Samuel Guy Inman, William F. Montavon, Heloise Brainerd, Cecil Knight Jones, E. Gil Borges, J. Fred Rippy, William Ray Manning, Charles C. Tansill, Roy F. Nichols, Louis Martin Sears, and James Alexander Robertson.]

Export guide and directory of foreign consuls in the United States. . . . Edited by Angel August Braschi. . . . Chicago, published by the Consular publishing company [c. 1934] 359 p. maps, forms. 27½ cm. [A new guide which contains lists of holidays, postal rates, weights and measures, steamship lines, foreign diplomatic and consular representatives in the United States, United States diplomatic and consular representatives in foreign countries, general passport regulations, and United States consular regulations.]

Cómo estabilizar la agricultura nacional; crédito habilitador, seguro agrícola integral [por] Francisco Gómez Haedo [y] Edmundo Soares Netto. Montevideo, Imp. "El Siglo ilustrado", 1932. 246 p. tables, diagrs. 24 cm. [A discussion of agricultural credit and insurance as aids to Uruguayan agriculture.]

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

Revista médica latino-americana. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año XIX, núm. 220, enero de 1934. [126] p. illus., diagrs. 23x15½ cm. Monthly. Editors: Julio Iribarne, Rafael A. Bullrich and J. A. Domínguez. Address: Córdoba 2088-2092, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Revista de aduana; publicación mensual de interés sobre cuestiones aduaneras, consulares, marítimas y portuarias. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año 7, núm. 79, marzo 15 de 1934. 48 p. 26½x17½ cm. Address: Bolívar 256, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Camínos; revista técnica. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año I, núm. 1, marzo 1934. 26 p. diagrs. 29x21½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Eduardo Arenas. Address: Pringles 379, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Sol de Cuscatlán. La Habana, 1933. Núm. 1, año I, mayo 1933. 19 p. illus. 22x14 cm. Monthly. Editor: J. D. Corpeño, cónsul general de El Salvador. Address: Consulado general de El Salvador, La Habana, Cuba.

El Porvenir ilustrado. Monterey, N.L., 1934. Tomo I, núm. 1, abril 8 de 1934. 39 p. illus. 29x22 cm. Weekly. Editor: J. Cantu Leal. Address: Monterrey, Nuevo León, México.

Archivos de pediatría del Uruguay; órgano de la Sociedad de pediatría de Montevideo. Montevideo, 1933. Tomo IV, núm. 10, octubre de 1933. [43] p. 24x16 cm. Monthly. Editor: C. Pelfort. Address: Avenida 18 de julio 1056 (3er. piso), Montevideo, Uruguay.

Revista sudamericana de botánica; órgano oficial de la Asociación sudamericana de botánica. Montevideo, 1934. Vol. I, núm. 1, febrero 1934. 32 p. illus. 23x16 cm. Monthly. Editor: W. G. Herter. Address: Reyes 1197 esq. Valdense, Montevideo, Uruguay.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

TREATIES AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

Brazil-Uruguay.—The exchange of ratifications of a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation and a Convention on the Exchange of Professors and Students, signed by Brazil and Uruguay, took place in Montevideo on December 20, 1933. Both instruments went into effect immediately.

The Treaty of Commerce and Navigation was signed in Rio de Janeiro on August 25, 1933, by Dr. Juan Carlos Blanco, Ambassador of Uruguay in Brazil, and Dr. Afranio de Mello Franco, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil. In addition to the most-favored-nation clause and other provisions customary in pacts of this kind, the treaty deals with the features of their commerce peculiar to the two nations.

Trade between them is carried on in one of three ways: By sea, overland across the Brazil-Uruguayan frontier, and by inland water shipping. In maritime commerce, Montevideo is important as a port of transshipment for Brazilian goods en route from river ports in Matto Grosso to the Atlantic seaports of Brazil. The Uruguayan Government offers to store without charge for a year in its official warehouses goods in transit to or from Brazil, and the treaty provides for the necessary procedure in such cases and for inter-Brazilian shipping via Montevideo. In overland commerce, each country has the right to introduce locomotives and cars, laden or empty, at all junctions now in existence or created later. Each country agrees to consider as under its own flag the vessels of the other navigating between the ports of the one or the other country from Rio de Janeiro to Matto Grosso, or between Brazilian and Uruguayan ports on Lake Merím and the Yaguarón, San Miguel, and Cebollatí Rivers.

Certain agricultural products are to be admitted free of duty from one country to the other, and quotas for the free admission of others are set. These quotas are subject to annual revision without affecting other clauses in the treaty. Goods in transit between the two countries will be exempt from consular fees, but not from documents.

The Government of Uruguay, according to article 19, "will suspend the absentee tax levied on real estate within its borders belonging to Brazilian citizens non-resident in Uruguay."

The treaty provides for the calling of three commissions. One is to meet in Montevideo or in a city of Rio Grande do Sul, to study the creation of a railway union with special, general, and zone tariffs. Another, of veterinaries, will draw up the sanitary measures to which all animals passing from one country to the other shall be submitted; until the meeting of the commission, the sanitary regulations at present in effect in each country shall be applied. The third commission will be composed of experts from Uruguay and Brazil and, if possible, the Argentine Republic, meeting to study the best way to promote regular interchange of commerce between the three countries and to suppress smuggling.

The Convention on the Interchange of Professors and Students was signed in Montevideo on August 1, 1921. Each country agrees to make it possible for the professors of its universities and colleges to give in like institutions in the other, courses and lectures on scientific, literary, and artistic subjects. They are to deal preferably with matters of interest to the Americas or with those related to events connected with one or more American nations, especially with the professor's own country. The exchange professors will be paid by their own Government or institution, except when their services were expressly requested, in which case the expenses will be paid by the institution issuing the invitation.

Students from one country taking courses in universities or colleges of the other shall be exempt from registration, attendance, or examination fees. Those wishing to continue their studies in the other country may transfer to the corresponding course there, the university authorities of each country being empowered to waive special requirements in order that such students may make the transfer without set-back.

Each Government will determine for itself the manner of meeting the expenses incurred in fulfilling this convention.

Colombia-Venezuela.—On March 14, 1934, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela and the Minister of Colombia in Caracas exchanged notes, published in the *Gaceta Oficial* of Venezuela of that date, according to which a commercial agreement between the two nations immediately went into effect. The agreement will be in force for one year and remain so for a second unless denounced by one of the contracting parties three months before it expires. Specified amounts of Venezuelan salt and unfattened livestock will be admitted free by Colombia through customhouses on the common frontier, and fruits and merchandise in transit through Venezuela to or from Colombia are to be exempt from taxation.

THE MEXICAN ABSENTEE TAX LAW

Based on social and economic considerations rather than on fiscal needs, a law was recently promulgated by President Rodríguez laying a tax of 2 percent on the revenue or income derived by individuals or corporations domiciled abroad from property of all kinds in Mexico as well as a tax of 4 percent on investments made abroad by residents of Mexico. The law, which was published in the *Diario Oficial* for February 22, 1934, and went into effect on March 1, provides that the following persons shall pay the absentee tax:

1. Individuals domiciled abroad or who at the beginning of a fiscal year have resided abroad for over four months and who receive revenue or income produced in Mexico. All persons who at the beginning of a fiscal year have been abroad for over six months during the previous fiscal year, even if not consecutively, will be considered as domiciled abroad. Mexicans in the foreign service of the Government are exempted.

2. Companies or corporations domiciled abroad which receive revenue or income produced in Mexico.

3. Individuals or firms domiciled in Mexico which invest abroad revenue or income produced in Mexico.

Revenue or income produced in Mexico is defined as follows:

1. All income earned through ownership or exploitation of property rights to real estate in Mexico.

2. Dividends, interest, and other earnings from stocks, bonds, and any other securities granting participation in the profits of enterprises domiciled in Mexico or exploited by firms having for that purpose branches or agencies located there.

3. Interest, amortization, and other payments on loans payable by residents of Mexico or chargeable to income produced there.

4. Interest on Mexican credit instruments.

5. Life or temporary annuities derived from investments of capital as described in paragraph 3.

6. Interest and all similar earnings on deposits, current accounts, and bonds posted in Mexico or covering obligations payable in Mexico.

7. Profits derived by industrial or commercial enterprises operating a plant in Mexico or having an office or representative there.

8. Profits from the sale or lease of personal property located in Mexico.

9. Revenue of any kind derived from the exploitation of or any transaction in concessions or sub-soil exploitation rights issued by Mexican authorities.

10. Payments of any kind for personal, professional, or any other service rendered by individuals or companies domiciled in Mexico.

11. All income not here specified that is taxable under the Mexican revenue laws.

12. Inheritances, legacies, or donations taxable under the Mexican laws.

13. Payments by residents of Mexico to persons domiciled abroad for insurance or personal indemnity contracts.

14. Prizes won in lotteries and raffles held in Mexico.

15. Any other revenue or income which, because of its nature, may be included in any of the above classifications.

Investments by persons domiciled in Mexico in foreign industrial or commercial enterprises; real estate located abroad; shares, bonds, and other obligations of foreign corporations or governments are subject to the 4 percent tax, as are likewise the proceeds obtained by firms established in Mexico from the exportation of national products when it cannot be proven that such proceeds were returned to Mexico or invested in the purchase of merchandise or machinery imported into Mexico.

In order to insure the payment of the tax such third parties as banks, agents, and representatives connected with the transfer of payments of earnings or capital are held jointly responsible with the principals.—G.A.S.

LABOR LEGISLATION IN BRAZIL

A law which regulates the granting of vacations with pay to industrial workers is one of the latest steps taken by the Brazilian Government in its efforts to improve labor conditions. Beginning by setting up the necessary administrative machinery in the form of a Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, the Provisional Government which came into power in October 1930, has issued during the last three years a number of decrees on the organization of labor and social welfare. These decrees have taken into account the needs, occupational habits, and economic conditions of the country. Among the measures so far enacted are those which nationalize labor through the so-called "Two-Thirds Law", requiring that at least two thirds of the employees of business enterprises should be Brazilians; regulate the organization of labor unions; limit the hours of work in industry and commerce to eight hours a day; promote collective bargaining; establish conciliation boards and arbitration courts; and regulate the conditions of labor for women and children. Furthermore, the government has passed a number of measures to regulate and limit the immigration of foreign city workers and so to protect national labor.

Vacations with pay had already been granted salaried employees in commercial enterprises, banks, private charitable institutions, and the commercial departments of industrial undertakings by decree no. 23,103, of August 19, 1933. Such employees are given the right to 15 days' holiday each year, after 12 months of uninterrupted employment in the same establishment, without deduction from the pay, commission, or bonus to which they are entitled.

Decree no. 25,768, of January 18, 1934, which grants similar privileges to industrial workers, was drafted by a commission of employers and employees. It applies to employees of establishments engaged in any kind of industrial activity, journalistic enterprises, communication and transportation services, whether by land or air, and public services of the Federal, State, and municipal governments, or the enterprises which perform these services under a concession. It also applies to workers in the industrial sections of commercial undertakings, and in small repair shops and laboratories. The right to a vacation with pay is limited to those who have been employed uninterruptedly for 12 months in the same undertaking and are members of a labor union recognized by the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce. Employees who during the year have worked more than 250 days are entitled to 15 days vacation with pay, those who have worked less than 250 and more than 200, 11 days, and those who have worked less than 200 and more than 150, 7 days. Employees who have worked less than 150 days are not entitled to a vacation. The decree is to be enforced by the National Labor Bureau in the Federal District and by the inspectors of the Ministry of Labor in the States.—G.A.S.

COLOMBIA REGULATES CIVIL AVIATION

The President of Colombia, in the exercise of his legal powers, issued a decree dated January 12, 1934, and published in the *Diario Oficial* of Colombia on the 26th of the same month, regulating civil aviation in that Republic.

After declaring as part of the national territory the atmospheric space over the nation and its territorial waters, the decree groups all airships into state and private aircraft, making a further subdivision of the latter into passenger, mail, commercial, touring, and industrial aircraft, according to the purposes to which the ships are destined.

Foreign air transport companies operating in Colombia must establish a branch office, duly incorporated and legally domiciled in the country, and secure a permit from the national Government, after filing a statement concerning the type of service, the type and charac-

teristic of its airships, the itinerary of the flights, the location of repair shops and the personnel to be employed. Flying permits for airships other than commercial will be issued by the War Department.

The traffic rules and lighting regulations embodied in the Paris Convention on Aerial Navigation (1919) are provisionally adopted by this decree.

All commercial flights between points within the national territory shall be made in airships registered in Colombia. The Government, with the advice of a technical aviation commission, created by the decree, shall issue certificates of airworthiness and pilot licenses or revalidate, at its discretion, certificates and licenses officially issued by other nations. The commission shall issue regulations governing the inspection of air services and aircraft, for which purpose certain records shall be kept.

All foreign aircraft entering or crossing Colombian territory shall follow specified routes and use specified landing fields. The carrying of photographic apparatus and the transport of explosives, arms, and ammunition, as well as flight over military and other reserved zones, are prohibited without special permit.

The decree regulates exhibition and aerobatic flights, as well as flying over urban areas, and prescribes penalties for cases of violation of the regulations. Airports, landing fields, and aviation schools shall be licensed and inspected by the Government.

NEW MEXICAN IMMIGRATION REGULATIONS

The entry into Mexico of immigrants seeking gainful employment has been specifically forbidden for an indefinite period of time by the new regulations of the Immigration Law which went into effect on February 17, 1934. Such immigrants are defined in the regulations as those who intend to enter Mexico with the purpose of engaging in remunerative occupations under salary or wages. Exempt from this prohibition are technicians in any branch of industry or agriculture, professors whose entry is requested by an official institution, professional artists and athletes, traveling salesmen, and those going to occupy responsible positions with enterprises located in Mexico. The entry of these individuals, however, is subject to certain restrictions. Technicians, for example, are only admitted when their position cannot be filled by a native or resident alien and when a contract has been signed between the technician and his employer specifying that the former will train native apprentices and that the latter will replace the technician, at the expiration of his contract, by the native or natives whom he may have trained. In all cases a repatriation bond must be posted.

Investors who want to make Mexico their home must have a capital of at least 20,000 pesos, according to the new regulations, and the investment must be made in an industrial or agricultural enterprise, other than a corporation, and under no condition in a purely commercial business. This restriction is said to be made imperative by local conditions, since the number of small merchants and traders is growing out of all proportion to that in other occupations. The requirements for other types of aliens—relatives and other dependents of those legally admitted previously, students, minors, alien husbands and children of Mexican women, etc.—have not been materially changed.—G. A. S.

GUATEMALAN HIGHWAY LAW

The Republic of Guatemala has an area of 48,290 square miles, of which the greater part consists of lowlands largely covered with jungle or extensive mountainous regions presenting considerable difficulties in road building. In spite of these handicaps, there are at present over 3,000 miles of highways in the country. The Government has encouraged an increasing mileage of construction and repairs, because it realizes that only by highway development can the potential agricultural wealth of the Nation be made available. In 1931, for example, 440 miles of highway were repaired and 70 constructed, while in the following year, the latest for which figures are available, 780 miles were repaired and 175 constructed. This was accomplished, moreover, in the face of decreased appropriations in the national budget.

Work on the highways in the past has been largely done by citizens contributing their so-called "road service." Since 1931 this has been carried on under the General Bureau of Roads, cooperating with local officials and Agricultural and Highway Committees (see *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, June 1931, p. 660). In order to standardize the conditions under which the road service was contributed, and to raise funds for machinery, equipment, and other expenses, President Ubico issued on October 31, 1933, decree 1474, making it obligatory for all able-bodied individuals to give two weeks of personal service a year, or the equivalent in money, to the public highways to which they may be assigned. Those desirous of commuting their service pay one quetzal for each week's exemption, the funds thus obtained to be administered by the Highway and Agricultural Committees in accordance with existing legislation. One of the two weeks corresponds to the service customary before the decree was issued, and the other is equivalent to a highway tax.

FOREIGN POLICY ASSOCIATION TO ORGANIZE COMMISSION FOR STUDY OF CUBAN PROBLEMS

Dr. Raymond Leslie Buell, president of the Foreign Policy Association, announced on May 2 the acceptance of an invitation from President Mendieta of Cuba to organize a commission of experts and scholars to study economic and social problems confronting Cuba, with a view to formulating a reconstruction program.

The commission, which will be headed by Dr. Buell, will be composed of approximately 15 outstanding experts, chosen from the United States and Cuba. It will be organized immediately and will depart for Habana early in June. The commission will work in complete scientific independence and will be financed by funds raised for the purpose by the Foreign Policy Association.

President Mendieta's invitation to the Foreign Policy Association follows:

"Cuba confronts at the present time complex problems of an economic and social nature which, in the opinion of the Government, require scientific investigation of a profound and impartial character. In view of the close international relationships which unite us to the United States of America, and of the coincidence of interests between both countries in regard to a mutual and profitable exchange, it appears desirable that this investigation be carried out by a technical commission composed of distinguished citizens of both nations, capable of arriving at objective conclusions concerning our problems, precisely because of the different perspective with which it can contemplate them.

"Knowing, as I do, the work of the Foreign Policy Association in the international sphere, and your experience in activities of the character which we propose, I take the liberty of asking you whether the organization which you so ably direct would consent to sponsor the projected investigation, and if so, whether it would be possible for you to take charge of organizing the proposed commission and to preside over it, on the understanding, to be sure, that in view of the scientific character of its work, it would enjoy entire autonomy not only in regard to its procedure but also in regard to the conclusions at which it may arrive."

In announcing the acceptance of this invitation, Dr. Buell declared: "The Foreign Policy Association has long followed with sympathy the efforts of the people of Cuba to achieve economic and social reconstruction; we regard the present opportunity to assist in these efforts

as a real privilege. Our work will be carried on in complete scientific independence and will be entirely nonpolitical in character. It is our intention to establish cordial relationships with every group in Cuba and to produce a report which will command respect both in Cuba and the United States."

The Foreign Policy Association is an organization the purpose of which is to carry on research and educational activities in the field of international relations, particularly those which affect the United States. The association maintains headquarters in New York and a bureau in Washington. It has more than 10,000 members, as well as branches in leading American cities, which hold periodic discussions on questions of foreign policy.

The most important activity of the association lies in the field of international research. For this purpose a staff of experts publishes fortnightly reports which have acquired an international reputation. The association, which has no connection with the Government, is financed by membership dues, sale of publications, and voluntary contributions. In April 1929 the Foreign Policy Association published one of the first comprehensive statements dealing with the Machado dictatorship, and it has published a number of reports relating to the sugar situation insofar as it affected the relations between the United States and Cuba.

Dr. Buell, president of the association, will serve as chairman of the Cuban Commission. Research director of the association since 1927, he was elected president of the organization in December 1933. Dr. Buell has also been visiting professor in international relations at Yale, and a lecturer at Harvard, Columbia, Cornell, and Princeton Universities as well as at the New School for Social Research. He is the author of a number of volumes, the most important of which are "*International Relations*" and "*The Native Problem in Africa*." The latter volume was the result of an investigation in Africa made under the auspices of the Harvard and Radcliffe Bureau of International Research.

Mr. Charles Thomson, of the Foreign Policy Association staff, will serve as the secretary of the commission. He holds a master's degree from the University of Mexico, and for three years was Latin American secretary of the Fellowship of Reconciliation. He arrived in Habana on May 2.

The Foreign Policy Association will announce the personnel of the full commission, which will include experts on agricultural economics, public finance, public utilities, public health, and other subjects, within a few weeks. The commission will arrive in Cuba about June first, where it will make a thorough study of the situation.

CHILD WELFARE WORK IN BRAZIL

From September 17-27, 1933, the National Child Welfare Conference, attended by delegates from many parts of Brazil, met in Rio de Janeiro. The conference resulted from suggestions made by President Vargas in his message to the State Interventors [governors] on the previous Christmas Day. It was convoked to study and discuss the main problems relating to child welfare in its broadest aspects, and especially to guide the Government in drafting measures assuring a well-rounded program in this field by bringing to light the varying conditions surrounding children in the different sections of Brazil. The President of the conference was the Minister of Education, Dr. Washington Pires, and the chairman of the organizing committee the famous Brazilian pediatricist, Dr. Olinto de Oliveira, Inspector of Child Hygiene.

The conference was divided into five sections, on social work, education, hygiene, medicine, and legislation, respectively. Among the valuable contributions was a paper on the teaching of child care in the schools and institutes for the higher education of women in São Paulo, written by Maria Antonietta de Castro, head of public health education in the schools of the State of São Paulo. The main points of her paper, as given in the *Boletín del Instituto Internacional Americano de Protección a la Infancia* for January 1934, were as follows:

Infant mortality decreased in São Paulo from 175.43 per thousand births in 1925 to 142.97 in 1932. This decrease coincided with the campaign for prenatal and child hygiene carried out by the Sanitary Education and Health Center Inspection Bureau.

The two chief causes of infant mortality are poverty and ignorance; to fight the latter all means of spreading the knowledge of child care should be utilized. In São Paulo the health teacher is entrusted with this task in the dispensaries, schools, and homes. In 1930 there were 10 "little mothers" courses organized in the schools, with an attendance of 2,668 pupils; in 1933 the number of courses had increased to 60.

The "Children's Crusade" was organized in 1930, and "Children's Week", a real child-care week, in 1931. The "Crusade" continued its work with 687 practical demonstrations, 21,659 consultations, 5,066 lectures, and 6,274 visits to homes. Bottles of milk to the number of 196,366 were distributed among the 3,507 babies registered with the "Crusade."

The Vocational Institute for Girls was the first to organize a Child Welfare Dispensary in its own establishment. This dispensary assisted 1,361 babies and children; distributed 148,797 bottles of

milk; it gave 2,517 individual consultations and 267 milk demonstrations, and had 407 home visits made. The 503 students at the Institute follow theoretical and practical courses, the latter at the Dispensary, so as to be eligible for the "Health Band"; groups of 10 pupils of this association take under their care 5 babies and follow their development until they are 2 years old.

Similar courses in child hygiene are also given at the Domestic School of the Christian Women's League and at the Normal School of the Institute of Education.

The Health and Sanitary Education Service has organized child-care courses in 59 school groups, with a registration of 4,058 girls between 12 and 15 years of age. The pupils of some schools have organized campaigns to fight infant mortality.

Women's organizations also cooperated in this work.

At the final session of the conference certain conclusions were adopted which it was hoped would be of assistance to the Government in drawing up comprehensive child-welfare legislation in the near future. Such legislation, it was recommended, should aim to give an equal opportunity to all children, assuring the less fortunate a chance for health, education, and recreation. It was further voted that the new constitution, to be adopted by the National Constituent Assembly elected to meet on the following November 15, should include provisions guaranteeing protection to families, to mothers, and to children. All Federal, State, and municipal legislation should be coordinated. It was also recommended that suitable organizations be established to make such legislation effective and especially that the Council for the Protection and Care for Minors, with headquarters in Rio de Janeiro, be reorganized and associated with similar State and municipal bodies. The Federal Government was urged to create a Bureau of Protection for Children and Mothers.

The preliminary draft of the new Federal Code for Minors, as presented to the Constituent Assembly, was printed in the *Diario Oficial* of November 6, 1933.

Before the conference was held—in the middle of 1933—the State of Rio Grande do Sul passed a law creating a Juvenile Court, a reform school, and a Council for the Assistance and Protection of Minors in Porto Alegre, the capital of the State. Dr. Dionysio Marques, an active advocate of the court, was appointed its first judge. Dr. Marques granted an interview to the *Correio do Povo*, in which he described the duties and problems of child-welfare work and explained the organization of the juvenile court as it is to function in Porto Alegre. Besides the judge, there is a prosecutor, a physician, a clerk, a policeman and a policewoman, and an undetermined number of volunteer deputies. Dr. Marques stated that he was ready to appoint 100 of the latter from members of various civic groups. The work of

the court will be greatly aided by the Council for the Assistance and Protection of Minors, whose duties will be to watch over and protect minors released from reform schools and those on probation or on parole; visit and inspect educational institutions, factories, and workshops, and report to the authorities any violations of the law with respects to minors; establish institutions for the education of neglected and abnormal children; organize and establish *Patronatos de Menores*; maintain a list of suitable individuals and private or official institutions willing to care for or supervise the education and upbringing of children; and study any other problems related to childhood and adolescence.



LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY AND LITERARY NEWS

Bibliographic resolution.—The Seventh International Conference of American States which met in Montevideo adopted a resolution of far-reaching importance to librarians, students, men of letters, and all those interested in the development of closer cultural relations between the peoples of North and South America. This resolution outlines 32 separate projects for the investigation and coordination of bibliographic and library matters in the countries members of the Union. Making the library of the Pan American Union the responsible agent for organizing and promoting the projects the resolution suggests, in part, for each of the 21 Republics of the Union the compilation of lists of current and old books and of magazine articles; the establishment of a directory of American libraries and similar institutions and of authors; the creation of interlibrary loans and exchanges; the promotion of special displays of the best literature of each country; the preparation of guides, directories, and calendars of manuscript collections; and the convocation of the First Inter-American Bibliographic Conference. One of the most important sections, article 3, provided for the proposal of a concrete plan for the adoption of uniform systems of cataloging and classification in order to facilitate adoption by all the national libraries of America of the Union Catalogue of the libraries of the United States.

Compilation of Spanish encyclopaedia.—The Library has received volume 10, letters T–Z, of the supplement to the *Enciclopedia universal ilustrada europea-americana*, now published by Espasa-Calpe, S.A., Bilbao, Barcelona, Madrid. The first volume to this work, commonly known as “the Espasa encyclopaedia”, appeared in 1905. The complete set comprises 70 volumes, the last of which was published in 1930, and the 10 supplementary volumes. “Espasa” is accepted as the standard encyclopaedia in Spanish.

Argentine literary anniversary.—The Argentine review, *La Literatura argentina*, which recently celebrated its fifth anniversary, published a complete survey of its achievements during this period. Of interest to librarians are the articles appearing during that period on libraries in Argentina, the publication of the “Bibliografía general argentina”, and the encouragement given to book expositions. The most recent of the latter was the Exposition of Argentine Books, which was held during the early part of 1934 by the Club Mar del Plata in Buenos Aires.

The National Library of Bogotá.—A contract was recently signed between the Biblioteca Nacional of Bogotá and Gustavo Otero Muñoz, by which the latter was commissioned to publish catalogs of the periodicals in the National Library and of the Quijano Otero and the Pineda collections there. The completion of this work has been long awaited by the library in Bogotá.

In accordance with a governmental decree, a bust of Diego Fallon was unveiled in the Library on March 10, 1934, the one hundredth anniversary of his birth. At the ceremonies the director of the Library, Sr. Daniel Samper Ortega, spoke in praise of the famous Colombian composer and poet. Some of his better known compositions are *La luna*; *La palma*; *Las rocas de Suesca*; and *A la palma del desierto*. Fallon died August 13, 1905.

According to the last annual report of the Director, submitted to the Secretary of Public Education, the library served 35,784 readers, an increase of about 29 percent over the year before. Of the 57,000 books in the library not recatalogued and reclassified the year before, only 15,000 still remain to be done. Exchanges were made with Argentina, Brazil, Mexico, Switzerland, the United States, and Uruguay. An innovation in library methods in the Republic was the “traveling library” sent by the National Library to the southern border. In connection with this the Director reports the desire that this interesting work might be augmented during the ensuing year by a supply of moving pictures, more books and pamphlets, and the inauguration of public lectures. Two important gifts made to the library were the military library willed to it by Gen. Paulo Emilio Escobar and the educational library installed by the Ministry of Education. At the instigation of the library and with the cooperation of the Ministry of Government, an intellectual census has been started throughout the country to determine (1) the number of newspapers and magazines published; (2) the names, number of students, and location of primary and secondary schools; (3) the titles and number of volumes in private and public libraries; (4) the names and addresses of writers; (5) the names of bookshops, printers, learned institutions, and societies; and (6) social conditions in relation to education and library facilities.

The library is still continuing successfully its program of radio conferences, aided by some of the most prominent men and women of the country. The library building, begun last May, is still in course of construction.

Libraries in Brazil.—The “intellectual census” of Brazil, published in 1932, gives a list of the libraries in the Republic, with the name, address, and type of each library. The statistical summary shows 1,527 libraries, with a total of more than 9,000,000 volumes. The state of São Paulo has the largest number, 311. The Federal District lists 220, Minas Geraes 179, and Rio Grande do Sul 176.

The National Library of Chile.—The statistical report of the Biblioteca Nacional of Santiago, Chile, for 1933 lists the total number of readers as 304,950, of books consulted, 358,994, and of the new books received throughout the library and its special sections, 6,164.

The National Library of El Salvador.—In the annual report of the Biblioteca Nacional of El Salvador, published on March 1, 1934, the Director expresses himself as encouraged by the progress shown in exchanges between El Salvador and Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, and Spain. A friendly gesture was made by the Director when he sent to the National Library in Montevideo, through the kindness of his country's delegation to the Seventh International Conference of American States, an expression of friendship and cooperation. The Library was transferred to the fireproof National Theatre building during 1933.

Director of Venezuelan National Archives.—Dr. Eloy G. González was recently appointed director of the National Archives of Venezuela by the President of that country, through a decree of the Ministro de Relaciones Exteriores. Dr. González is the author of the standard work *Historia de Venezuela*, and also of the following: *Al margen de la epopeya*, *Bolívar en la Argentina*, *Dentro de la Cusiata*, *Discursos leídos en la Academia nacional de la Historia*, and *Historia estadística de Cojedes desde 1771*.—THE LIBRARIAN, *Columbus Memorial Library*.



NECROLOGY

DR. ALFREDO ZAYAS Y ALFONSO.—On April 11, 1934, ex-President Alfredo Zayas y Alfonso died at his home in Habana, Cuba, in his 73d year. From his admission to the bar in 1873 until Cuba obtained her independence, Dr. Zayas was an active advocate of independence; in fact, he was once exiled by Spain for his revolutionary activities. After Cuba had obtained her freedom, he began his long political career. He was a member and secretary of the Constituent Assembly in 1901; Assistant Secretary of Justice of the Provisional Government; senator for Habana in 1902; member of the Consultative Commission in 1907; Vice-President of the Republic in 1908 under General Gómez; and President from 1921 to 1925. But his interests were not only political. He founded *La Habana Elegante*, a leading literary review of its time; was president of the Economic Society and Friends of the Country, and a member of the National Academy of History; wrote a *Lexicografía Antillana*, as well as monographs on national and foreign historical subjects; and won an enviable reputation as a lawyer.

President Carlos Mendieta and members of his Cabinet, with thousands of their compatriots, attended the funeral of the former Chief Executive of the Republic, and ten days of official mourning throughout the nation were decreed.

DR. JOSÉ MARÍA GONZÁLEZ VALENCIA.—Dr. José María González Valencia, a prominent statesman and diplomat of Colombia, died in Bogotá on March 4, 1934. He had been Minister of Justice, of Foreign Affairs, of the Interior, and of Public Instruction, Senator, Councillor of State, Minister to the Vatican and to the Governments of Peru and Panama, and rector (president) of the School of Law and Political Science. Both the national and the Departmental Governments issued decrees of condolence at his passing.



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JULY

1934

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

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UNION OF AMERICAN REPUBLICS



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JULY

1934



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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

L. S. ROWE
Director General

E. GIL BORGES
Assistant Director

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

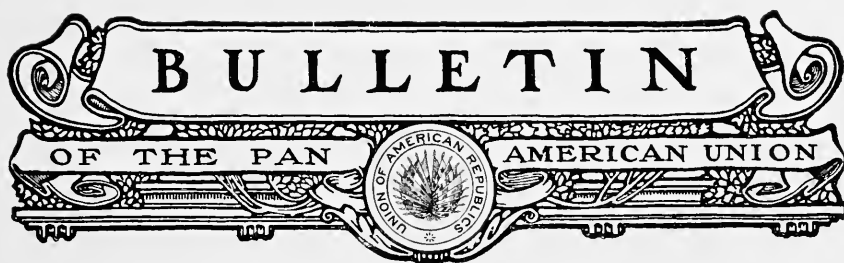
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SIGNING THE TREATY OF CUBAN-UNITED STATES RELATIONS.

The new treaty of relations between the United States and Cuba was signed May 29, 1934, by the Ambassador of Cuba to the United States, Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, for his country, and by the Secretary of State, Hon. Cordell Hull, and the Assistant Secretary, Hon. Sumner Welles, on behalf of the United States. Following approval by the United States Senate and by the Cuban Government, ratifications were exchanged in Washington, June 9.



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No. 7

NEW TREATY OF RELATIONS BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND CUBA

ON May 31, 1934, the Senate of the United States approved a treaty of relations between the United States of America and the Republic of Cuba, signed in Washington two days before.

The new treaty abrogates the treaty of relations concluded between the United States of America and Cuba on May 22, 1903, embracing the Platt Amendment, which was an act of Congress of the United States signed March 2, 1901.

The text of the treaty, which was signed by Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, Ambassador of Cuba to the United States, for his country, and the Secretary of State, Hon. Cordell Hull, and the Assistant Secretary of State, Hon. Sumner Welles, for the United States, reads:

The United States of America and the Republic of Cuba, being animated by the desire to fortify the relations of friendship between the two countries and to modify, with this purpose, the relations established between them by the Treaty of Relations signed at Habana, May 22, 1903, have appointed, with this intention, as their Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the United States of America: Mr. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States of America, and Mr. Sumner Welles, Assistant Secretary of State of the United States of America; and

The Provisional President of the Republic of Cuba: Señor Dr. Manuel Márquez Sterling, Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of the Republic of Cuba to the United States of America;

Who, after having communicated to each other their full powers which were found to be in good and due form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE I

The Treaty of Relations which was concluded between the two contracting parties on May 22, 1903, shall cease to be in force, and is abrogated, from the date on which the present Treaty goes into effect.

ARTICLE II

All the acts effected in Cuba by the United States of America during its military occupation of the island, up to May 20, 1902, the date on which the Republic of Cuba was established, have been ratified and held as valid; and all the rights legally acquired by virtue of those acts shall be maintained and protected.

ARTICLE III

Until the two contracting parties agree to the modification or abrogation of the stipulations of the agreement in regard to the lease to the United States of America of lands in Cuba for coaling and naval stations signed by the President of the Republic of Cuba on February 16, 1903, and by the President of the United States of America on the 23rd day of the same month and year, the stipulations of that agreement with regard to the naval station of Guantánamo shall continue in effect. The supplementary agreement in regard to naval or coaling stations signed between the two Governments on July 2, 1903, also shall continue in effect in the same form and on the same conditions with respect to the naval station at Guantánamo. So long as the United States of America shall not abandon the said naval station of Guantánamo or the two Governments shall not agree to a modification of its present limits, the station shall continue to have the territorial area that it now has, with the limits that it has on the date of the signature of the present Treaty.

ARTICLE IV

If at any time in the future a situation should arise that appears to point to an outbreak of contagious disease in the territory of either of the contracting parties, either of the two Governments shall, for its own protection, and without its act being considered unfriendly, exercise freely and at its discretion the right to suspend communications between those of its ports that it may designate and all or part of the territory of the other party, and for the period that it may consider to be advisable.

ARTICLE V

The present Treaty shall be ratified by the contracting parties in accordance with their respective constitutional methods; and shall go into effect on the date of the exchange of their ratifications, which shall take place in the city of Washington as soon as possible.

IN FAITH WHEREOF, the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Treaty and have affixed their seals hereto.

DONE in duplicate, in the English and Spanish languages, at Washington on the twenty-ninth day of May, one thousand nine hundred and thirty-four.

[SEAL]	CORDELL HULL.
[SEAL]	SUMNER WELLES.
[SEAL]	M. MÁRQUEZ STERLING.

At the ceremony, Dr. Márquez Sterling addressed the plenipotentiaries of the United States as follows:

At the solemn moment when the Republic of Cuba was proclaimed in 1902, a famous leader and great American tribune of the people, who was present when the glorious flag of his country was lowered in order that the flag of our independence might be raised, felt himself overcome by profound emotion and said to the Cuban patriots around him: "It is better that the stars and stripes should be indelibly imprest upon your hearts than that they should float above your heads."

These words, so full of wisdom and generosity, come to my memory as I sign with you this treaty, the simple and far-reaching provisions of which mark the culminating point of that solemn ceremony. This treaty transforms the former pact, entered into a third of a century ago, into a permanent and indestructible association, to which Cuba brings the respect and admiration which the high virtues of the American people inspire in her. My country is persuaded by long and hard experience that those treaties are always fruitful and lasting, which, like the stars and stripes, are indelibly imprinted in our hearts and create an undying bond of gratitude and confidence.

Dr. Márquez Sterling then closed his remarks by reading a telegram from Dr. Cosme de la Torriente, Secretary of State of Cuba, a translation of which is here given:

On the signing, today, in Washington, of a treaty abrogating that of May 22, 1903, I request you to express to the American plenipotentiaries, to Mr. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, and to Assistant Secretary Sumner Welles, in the name of the Cuban people, of President Mendieta, and of his Government, and in my own name, the profound satisfaction which we feel in these moments in which this act knits even closer the very old friendship existing between Cuba and the United States of America. Ask them to be so good as to express our immense gratitude to President Roosevelt, hoping that you may as soon as possible express personally to the President these same sentiments. At the same time communicate to the American plenipotentiaries the appreciation and high esteem which we feel for the great effort made by them to bring the derogation to a happy ending. The President, the Government, and I express to you personally our most sincere congratulations and we advise you that last night the Cabinet put on the records a vote of thanks to you.

The Secretary of State replied to the Cuban Ambassador:

Since the achievement of her independence in 1898, during which time I spent some six months with my regiment in Cuba, I have had a genuine personal interest in the Cuban people and have followed their progress with the greatest sympathy.

I think that at the meeting at Montevideo of the Seventh Congress of American States a new spirit was really born. We could very well call it the spirit of the "good neighbor." That meant that the people of each of the twenty-one nations—and, in fact, of all important nations—should feel wholly disposed to meet with each other on a basis of absolute equality and fellowship, to learn each other's viewpoint and to develop a spirit of comradeship and of friendship and of cooperative effort for the purpose of promoting the common interest, common sympathies, and common purposes of the people of each country. The foundations were laid for vast accomplishments in the future by the people of this hemisphere. A number of the fruits of this wonderful gathering at Montevideo have already come into being. It is in response to that spirit of genuine friendship and interest in the welfare of our neighbors in Cuba, whose interest we are always ready and anxious to assist in promoting, that the occasion for this treaty revision came about. I congratulate you and I know I speak the whole-hearted sentiment of my Government and the people of this country when I say that we shall be the same close sympathetic neighbors that we have been in the past and that we shall watch with great interest the progress of the people of Cuba.

Secretary of State Hull immediately dispatched to President Roosevelt a copy of the treaty with the following letter:

THE PRESIDENT:

The undersigned, Secretary of State, has the honor to lay before the President, with a view to its transmission to the Senate to receive the advice and consent of that body to ratification, if his judgment approve thereof, a treaty of relations between the United States of America and the Republic of Cuba, which was signed at Washington on May 29, 1934.

This treaty would supersede the treaty of relations with Cuba signed at Habana on May 22, 1903.

Article II of the treaty reiterates the provisions of article IV of the treaty of 1903, which provides that all the acts effected in Cuba by the United States during its military occupation of the island up to May 20, 1902, the date upon which the Republic of Cuba was established, have been ratified and held as valid, and that all the rights legally acquired by virtue of these acts shall be maintained and protected.

Under article III the United States retains its present rights with regard to its lease of the lands occupied at Guantanamo for a naval station, and it is provided that these rights shall continue so long as the United States does not abandon the said naval station and so long as the two Governments do not agree to any modifications thereof.

Article IV permits either of the two contracting parties to exercise, at its discretion, without its act being considered unfriendly, the right to suspend communications between those of its ports that it may designate and all or part of the territory of the other party, whenever in its own judgment a situation should arise which appears to presage an outbreak of contagious disease in the territory of the other contracting party.

Respectfully submitted.

CORDELL HULL.

Accompaniment: Treaty as above.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE, *Washington, May 29, 1934.*

On the same day the President submitted the treaty, with Secretary Hull's report, to the Senate, with this message:

TO THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES:

To the end that I may receive the advice and consent of the Senate to its ratification, I transmit herewith a treaty of relations between the United States of America and the Republic of Cuba, signed at Washington on May 29, 1934.

This treaty would supersede the treaty of relations between the United States and Cuba signed at Habana on May 22, 1903.

I have publicly declared "that the definite policy of the United States from now on is one opposed to armed intervention." In this new treaty with Cuba the contractual right to intervene in Cuba which had been granted to the United States in the earlier treaty of 1903 is abolished and those further rights, likewise granted to the United States in the same instrument, involving participation in the determination of such domestic policies of the Republic of Cuba as those relating to finance and to sanitation, are omitted therefrom. By the consummation of this treaty this Government will make it clear that it not only opposes the policy of armed intervention but that it renounces those rights of intervention and interference in Cuba which have been bestowed upon it by treaty.

Our relations with Cuba have been and must always be especially close. They are based not only upon geographical proximity but likewise upon the fact that

American blood was shed as well as Cuban blood to gain the liberty of the Cuban people and to establish the Republic of Cuba as an independent power in the family of nations. I believe that this treaty will further maintain those good relations upon the enduring foundation of sovereign equality and friendship between our two people, and I consequently recommend to the Senate its ratification.

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT.

Accompaniments:

Treaty as above;

Report of the Secretary of State.

THE WHITE HOUSE, *May 29, 1934.*

After the signing of the treaty, the following telegrams were exchanged between the two Secretaries of State and the two Presidents:

HABANA, *May 29, 1934.*

His Excellency CORDELL HULL,

Secretary of State,

Washington.

My sincerest congratulations, with the expression of my personal gratitude for the great aid which you have rendered to the development of the very close relations between our two peoples.

TORRIENTE.

WASHINGTON, *June 1, 1934.*

His Excellency

Señor Doctor COSME DE LA TORRIENTE,

Secretary of State,

Habana, Cuba.

I am particularly glad of the opportunity to reciprocate personally the cordial sentiments expressed in your message on the occasion of the signing of the new treaty of relations between the United States and Cuba and to express my confidence that this treaty will open a new era in the relations of our countries which will be characterized by strengthening of the historical ties of friendship existing between our respective peoples.

CORDELL HULL.

HABANA, *May 29, 1934.*

President FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT,

Washington, D.C.

I express to Your Excellency deep and undying gratitude for the conclusion of the new treaty of relations between Cuba and the United States and I acknowledge Your Excellency's exalted attitude.

CARLOS MENDIETA.

THE WHITE HOUSE, *June 7, 1934.*

His Excellency

CARLOS MENDIETA Y MONTEFUR

President of Cuba,

Havana, Cuba.

Through an administrative delay Your Excellency's message of May 29 has not reached me until today. I am deeply appreciative of Your Excellency's expressions on the occasion of the signing of the new treaty of relations between

the United States and Cuba and in reiterating my most cordial personal sentiments I am glad to assure Your Excellency that the opportunity to contribute to further strengthening of the historic ties of friendship between our peoples and Governments has been a source of utmost gratification.

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT.

The treaty was ratified by the Cuban Government on June 4 and the ratifications were exchanged in Washington on June 9. A national holiday of three days—June 9, 10 and 11—was declared in Cuba to celebrate the event. The telegrams given below were sent on this occasion:

HABANA, *June 9, 1934.*

His Excellency

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT,
*President of the United States of America,
Washington, D.C.*

On the entrance into effect of the new treaty of relations between the United States of America and Cuba, I take profound satisfaction in sending greetings to Your Excellency and the North American people and in expressing my assurance that the old ties of friendship and solidarity between the Union and Cuba have been reaffirmed to the benefit of the future of the two nations.

CARLOS MENDIETA.

THE WHITE HOUSE, *June 11, 1934.*

His Excellency,

CARLOS MENDIETA Y MONTEFUR,
*President of Cuba,
Habana.*

I shall be most happy to convey to the people of the United States Your Excellency's cordial message on the occasion of the exchange of ratifications of the new Treaty of Relations between the United States and Cuba. In reciprocating the personal sentiments which Your Excellency was so good as to express, I reiterate my conviction that the relations of our respective countries have entered upon a new phase which will be marked by frank cordiality and a spirit of mutual cooperation and understanding.

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT.

HABANA, *June 9, 1934.*

His Excellency CORDELL HULL,

Washington.

On the exchange of ratifications of the treaty which has been received with the greatest rejoicing by the people of Cuba, I have the honor to congratulate Your Excellency on the part that you have taken in this highly important negotiation, which will maintain the friendship of our peoples firm and everlasting.

COSME DE LA TORRIENTE,
Secretary of State.

June 11, 1934.

His Excellency

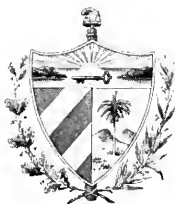
COSME DE LA TORRIENTE,

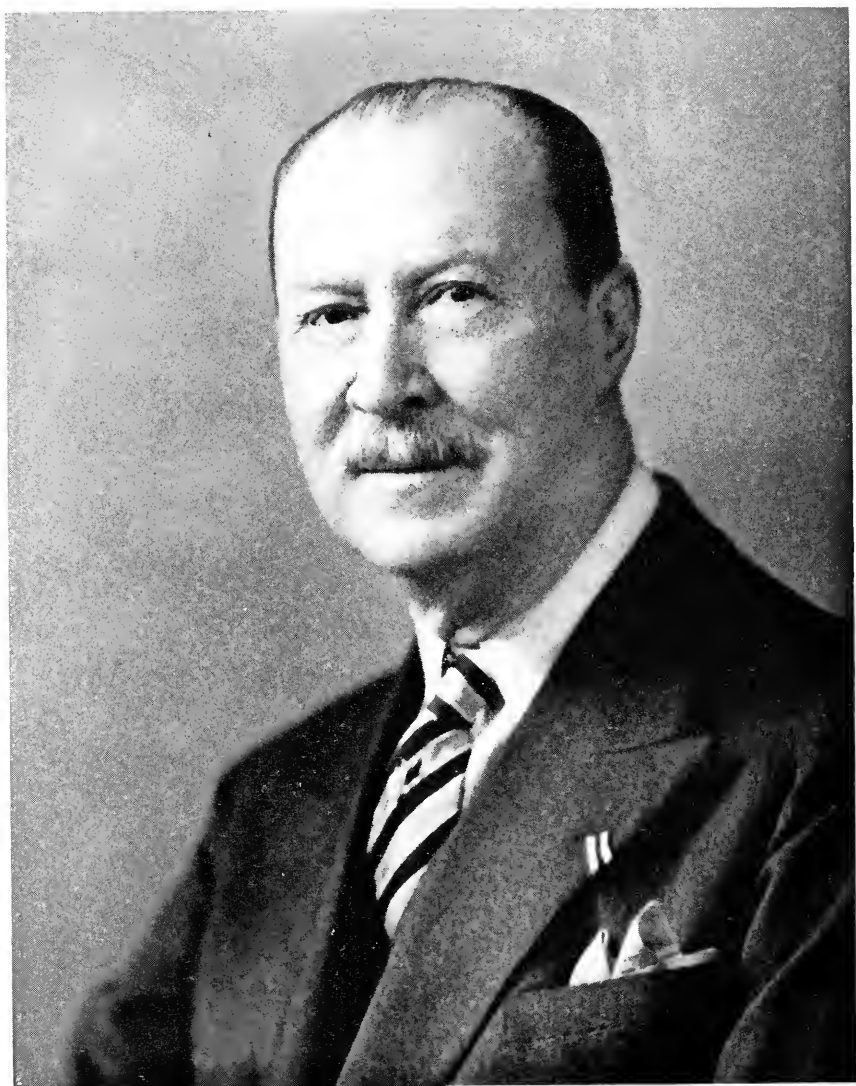
Secretary of State,

Habana, Cuba.

Your Excellency's message felicitating me for the part it was my privilege as Secretary of State to play in the negotiations which recently culminated in the exchange of ratifications of the new treaty of relations is deeply appreciated. I assure Your Excellency that in undertaking these negotiations the knowledge that they promise materially to contribute to a franker and closer understanding between our respective countries was a source of utmost gratification. Please accept the reiterated assurances of my personal esteem.

CORDELL HULL.





SEÑOR DON MANUEL GONZÁLEZ ZELEDÓN.
MINISTER RESIDENT OF COSTA RICA IN THE UNITED STATES

HIS EXCELLENCY SEÑOR
DON MANUEL GONZÁLEZ ZELEDÓN
MINISTER RESIDENT OF COSTA RICA

THE newly accredited Minister Resident of Costa Rica to the United States, Señor Don Manuel González Zeledón, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on May 23, 1934. For the last two years Señor González Zeledón has been discharging the functions of chargé d'affaires in Washington and representing his country on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, as he will continue to do.

Señor González Zeledón is a native of San José, the capital of Costa Rica, where he was educated. He has distinguished himself at home and abroad in public life, in business, and as a man of letters.

During his political career in Costa Rica he held positions in the judicial, administrative, and legislative branches of the Government. His first position, obtained when he was but a youth, was in the law office of Señor don Inocente Moreno, and while there he published a form for registration cards which received official approval and was used for many years by notary publics of the Republic. After a period in the consular service, he became chief clerk of the State Department; some time later he was elected deputy to the national Congress from the Province of San José. He also held municipal offices in the capital.

His service abroad began in 1889 with his appointment as consul in Bogotá, Colombia, where he remained for nearly three years. In February 1902 he accompanied President-Elect Ascensión Esquivel on his visit to the other Central American Republics, and in October of the same year he was appointed delegate to the International Coffee Conference meeting in New York. His interest in the problems connected with the coffee industry has never ceased, and today he is considered an authority on the subject. Two years later he was commissioner general of Costa Rica to the St. Louis Exposition. From 1910 to 1914 he was consul general *ad honorem* of Costa Rica in New York.

For nearly 30 years Señor González Zeledón has lived in the United States, holding responsible positions in business enterprises having Latin American affiliations. To his active interest in literature and in social welfare was due the founding of the Hispanic Literary Circle, of New York, of which he was president, and of the Spanish Beneficent

Society, which elected him honorary president. He was also the founder and president of the Latin American Consular Association of New York, a member of the Central American Chamber of Commerce, and an organizer of the Brazilian Chamber of Commerce.

Señor González Zeledón is the author of an interesting and valuable dictionary which is shortly to appear in six languages—Spanish, English, French, Italian, Portuguese, and German—entitled “The Doctor, the Nurse, and the Foreign Patient.” This was planned to aid members of the medical profession in treating patients speaking a different language.

As might be expected from Señor González Zeledón’s experience, he is greatly interested in education. At one time he was professor of the Spanish language and literature in the Liceo de Costa Rica and in the Colegio Superior de Señoritas. He has frequently lectured in the United States on public education in Costa Rica and kindred topics.

Señor González Zeledón, a member of the Ateneo of Costa Rica, has long been known, both in Spanish speaking countries and in the United States, as a man of letters. While living in Costa Rica he contributed to several newspapers, and founded *El País*, a daily paper which made an enviable reputation for itself. He has won several prizes in literary competitions. In Costa Rican literature he is particularly noteworthy as the first writer of sketches of manners and customs, published under the pseudonym *Magón* and widely reprinted. They were reviewed in *The New York Times* and *The New York Herald Tribune*. Readers of the BULLETIN will recall the translation of his delightful little story, “The Two Musicians”, printed in March of this year.



THE DIARY OF THE COUNT OF CHINCHÓN

By S. L. MILLARD ROSENBERG, Ph.D.

Professor of Spanish, University of California at Los Angeles

IN the *Archivo General de Indias* at Sevilla, with the assistance of Miss Irene A. Wright whose acquaintance with the vast storehouse of the *Archivo* is depended on by Spanish scholars and paleographers, I recently found materials for an interesting study: the *diario* of the Count of Chinchón, who was Viceroy of Peru—the fourteenth—from 1629 to 1639.

For the most part the viceroys were sons of some of the proudest families of Spain, with names that resound with a pomp unknown in any other Christian land, and unsurpassed even by the dazzling procession of phrases that defined the illustrious Arabian caliphs. My viceroy, when he was most elaborately spoken of, was called: Don Luis Jerónimo Fernández de Cabrera Bobadilla Cerda y Mendoza, cuarto Conde de Chinchón, Señor de Valdemoro y Casarrubios, Alcaide Hereditario y Guarda Mayor de los Alcázares de Segovia y su Alférez Mayor, Comendador del Campo de Criptana en la Orden de Santiago, Tesorero General de la Corona de Aragón, Gentil Hombre de Cámara de Su Majestad y de sus Consejos Reales y Supremos de Aragón, de Italia y del Supremo de la Guerra, y Virrey del Perú . . . If I were good at such things, I should arrange this in verses and set it to music for the trumpet.

This is no joke, either, for over and over again, as you decipher the old chronicles, you may read of the public entry made into the City of Mexico or the City of Lima by a newly appointed viceroy, with a ceremony by no means eclipsed by the Lord Mayor's Show.

For instance, I was reading the other day, in the entrancing *Traditions* so inimitably told by Ricardo Palma, of the entry into Lima of one of the early viceroys, one item of which I remember. The Great Seal of the Viceroyalty was borne in the inaugural procession encased in a golden casket that lay on a luxurious velvet cushion in a sort of palanquin, whose roof and supports were richly covered with the finest carvings, from which hung, almost to the ground, curtains of gorgeous cloth of gold. The palanquin was borne on the haughty shoulders of the greatest nobles of the viceregal court. Yes, they were masters of ceremony in those seventeenth century days, and perhaps nowhere more masterful than in far Peru.

Well, then, to cut down the viceroy's name and additions to usable proportions, we shall speak of him as the Count of Chinchón, though if he were in Los Angeles today we should probably call him Señor de Cabrera, or simply Mr. Cabrera. But his contemporaries, when briefest, referred to him as the Señor Conde, and addressed him as Your Excellency. What a difference there is between Rex and Ludovicus and Ludovicus Rex! But will any democracy, any New Deal, ever cease to love a lord? Today, our lords, seldom found in palaces, infrequently in counting houses, emerge increasingly from laboratories and libraries, or, best of all, hide in some solitude of contemplation and inspiration, where, after all, the real sway of the world has always been, from the days of Homer, Plato, and Virgil, St. Francis and Erasmus, Cervantes and Shakespeare, Copernicus, Galileo, and Newton.

Among these great lords of mankind, the kings and viceroys have not often been numbered; and I fear that my fourteenth viceroy of Peru was not immortalized by his deeds or his cogitations. Yet his name is now permanently fixed, by mere coincidence, in *materia medica* and in botany.

The coincidence is, as the story goes, that the Señora Doña Francisca Henríquez Rivera de Cabrera, Countess of Chinchón, Vice Queen of Peru, while lying at the point of death in a tertian fever, was saved by the suggestion of a Jesuit priest, who had learned from the Indians how to use the bark of a certain tree as a febrifuge. The Protomédico, or court physician, Don Antonio Vela, listened to the Jesuit, grasped at his straw, or bark, brewed the bitter potion, and gave it copiously to the countess. And the countess recovered. And loud were the masses sung in the cathedral and rich were the thank-offerings to the saints and the Holy Virgin. So grateful was the countess that she caused an abundance of the bark to be sent to Spain for experimentation. And from Spain the bark has spread throughout the world, and has many times altered the course of human history. It has been refined and again refined, until today we have a dozen or more forms of quinine, which was originally called "Peruvian bark", "Jesuits' bark", "Powders of the countess", and other names. But finally it came to be called by the name given to it by the great botanist Linnaeus—*cinchona*—in honor of the Countess of Chinchón, from whom Europe received it. Linnaeus, however, mispronounced and misspelled the name. He wrote it *cinchona*—*sin ko na*—but he should have called it *chin cho na*, and an effort by Spanish pharmacologists has been made, without success, to have the botanical and officinal name corrected, in order to honor and perpetuate the name of the countess who for 10 years was Vice Queen of Peru, thanks, in part, to the Indians, the Jesuits, the Protomédico, and the bark of a second cousin of the gardenia you may wear in your buttonhole.

But let us turn from one pathological condition to another, to a whole group of such conditions, which caused far more damage and distress than was caused by the anopheles mosquito and malarial fever.

Nothing so well illustrates the ruinous state of the Empire at this period as the correspondence between the home government and the two vice-royalties of Mexico and Peru. This is especially true concerning the imposition of taxes. And as to inflation, we who, unfortu-

THE COUNT OF CHIN- CHÓN.

The diary of the Count of Chinchón furnishes interesting side-lights on life in Peru from 1629 to 1639 when he was serving as the fourteenth Viceroy. During that period the value of cinchona was made known to Europe following its use in restoring the Countess of Chinchón to health.



J. M. de Chinchón

Courtesy of S. L. Millard Rosenberg.

nately, are perhaps to be again familiar with that medicament, may be sure that anyone would be frightened if our next Congress should proceed as madly as did the Spanish Government of the sixteen thirties. At that time, the silver shipped from the two Americas in such stupendous quantities—shiploads—was carefully guarded by a large convoy of escorting ships, and almost always arrived in safety at the Spanish port. It was invariably lost, however, on the way from the wharf to the treasury. For there were none so bold as to turn guns on the King and on his terrible Conde Duque de Olivares. They

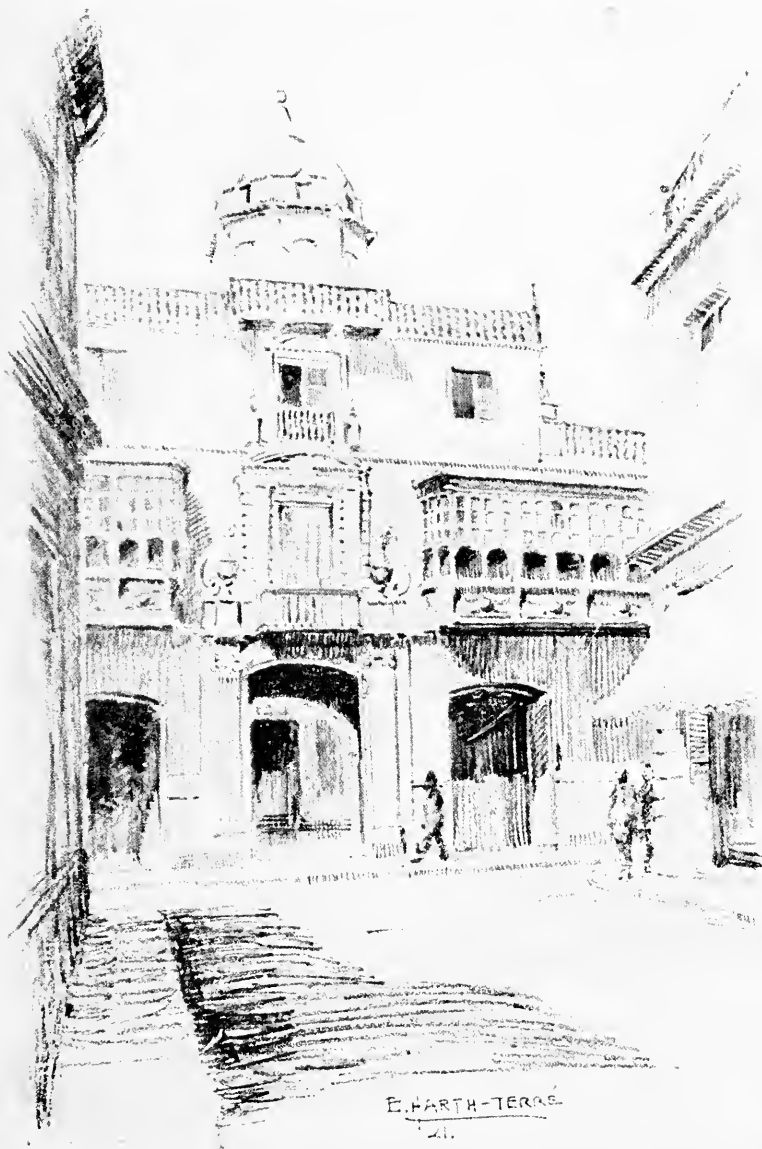
were the world's great racketeers, invariably successful and never brought to justice. The silver fleet would have done far more good to Peru and Spain and Europe if it had been sunk in mid-ocean—*spurlos versenkt*. As it was, the silver, on arrival in Spain, was taken by the Crown to pay for war—for aggressive and unnecessary and devastating wars—and for display—silly, lavish, and cruel displays of luxury. One-half of the silver was taken outright, with no return to the treasury whatever. The other half was paid for in *vellón*.

Vellón was, in the count's time, an alloy of silver and copper—with the silver left out. This pure copper was about as valuable as copper is now, and without the advantage of the beautiful picture on printing-press money. Moreover, the *vellón* had to be accepted at the prevailing price of silver, which ranged from 25 to 43 percent above par. It is clear that the millions upon millions of dollars' worth of Peruvian silver was rather a liability than an asset to Peru, and what it principally did for Spain was little more than to spill her best blood all over Europe while the people at home slowly starved to death.

But the confiscation of her silver was only an item of what Philip did to the Peru of the Count of Chinchón's time—as palpably revealed in this *diario*. For there were the taxes, layer upon layer, the details of which I shall spare you. And on top of the taxes were the import and export tariffs. And on top of the taxes and the tariffs were the trade restrictions, the fines, the fees, which discouraged business, big and little, and killed outright the most of it. And on top of all that were the enforced donations, beside which a community chest drive is a Sunday school collection. It differed from the community chest also in being its exact opposite, namely contributions *from* those that needed assistance, not *to* them.

Naturally, then, or perhaps unnaturally, the Peruvians were bled to inanition, and no private capital with which to do business remained in the country. And the worst of it was that the universal suffering was in a wicked and disastrous cause. The whole drainage went into insane wars and blind luxury. One tiny item of the latter—according to the *diario*—was the purchase of forty falcons for the king's hunting parties, at a cost of about forty thousand dollars, for which the poor viceroy had to chop off some very necessary public works. And all the while the riches pouring from Potosí and other mines were so great that a small portion would have made Peru comfortable without any taxation whatever.

So do not envy the distracted viceroy, who saw Peru languish through no fault peculiarly his own, although he was blamed for everything, both in Spain and at home, and was constantly putting down bloody uprisings caused by his reluctant but unavoidable collection of taxes in the effort to satisfy his insatiable master.



From drawing by E. Harth-Terré.

A COLONIAL RESIDENCE IN LIMA.

During the days of the viceroys, many splendid buildings were erected in which this distinctive style of architecture was employed.

But do not altogether pity him, either, for the viceroy was a man of his times and did not view his viceroyalty precisely as we do. He, too, shared some of the manias of his day, and one of them was the mania for costly display as a thing to take for granted. Thus he included in his budget unbelievably enormous sums for purposes that no modern ruler would contemplate for a moment. That he was under it all a good-hearted fellow is evident from his private acts as a mere man. He was, besides, as rigorous a puritan as those of the Massachusetts Bay Colony. No one might board a ship in Peru without previous confession and communion, and he made the sexes separate at public gatherings, the men in one section of the house and the women in the other. But his excessive zeal for social purity was a slight matter in comparison with his zeal for the purity of Catholicism, which culminated in the aid he gave to the Holy Office, whose prisons could not hold the hundreds of heretics and witches. When these were hanged or burned, the viceregal court attended in state in accord with the old country custom.

But beneath the zealotry which he seems to have taken to naturally, and the fiscal severity imposed upon him, we find a man who, in fields not obscured by Church or State, possessed real vision and beneficence. I need mention only the interest he took in engineering works and in explorations of virgin territory, and to note that in his decade the Amazon was followed down from the Andes clear to its mouth.

But all is forgotten concerning him, and the records of his career lie dust-covered in the archives. Only the cinchona bark remains with active alkaloids by which to remember him. And not even him, but his countess.

Some day, however, I hope to add a footnote to the story of the count. Peru was in the world drama an actor whose importance is not yet sufficiently recognized. And though many of the viceregal administrations are more interesting and picturesque from various points of historical view, that of Don Luis Jerónimo Fernández de Cabrera Bobadilla Cerda y Mendoza, fourth Count of Chinchón and fourteenth Viceroy of Peru, is perhaps one that best illustrates the pathology of his country's economics as well as that of the malarial fever of Doña Francisca Henríquez Rivera de Cabrera, Countess of Chinchón, first treated by bleeding, then by prayer, and at last and successfully by the bark of a tree.

ARCHEOLOGICAL DISCOVERIES IN CUZCO

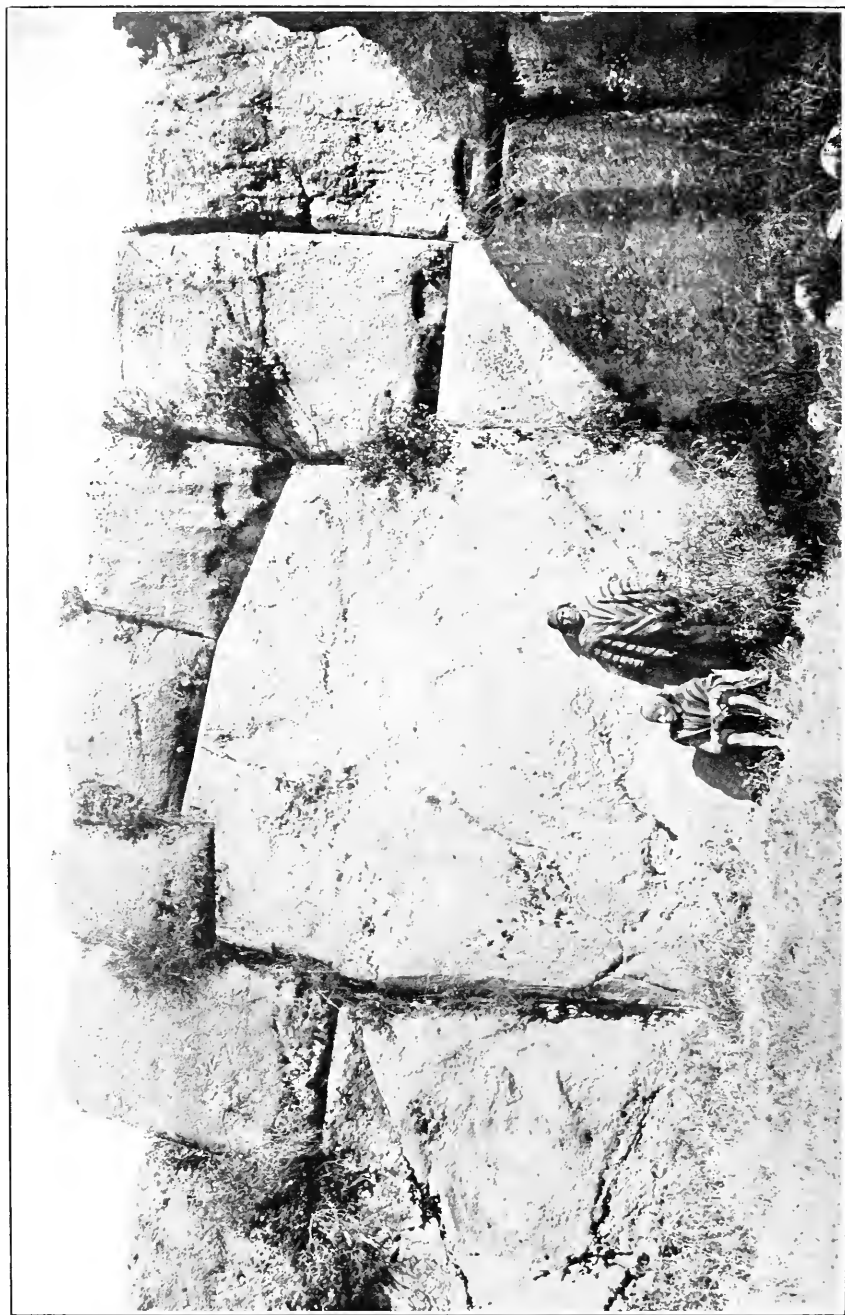
By LUIS E. VALCÁRCEL

Director General of the National Museum, Lima, Peru

SINCE the end of November 1933, excavations have been carried on successfully in the famous archeological district of Cuzco, the former capital of the Incan Empire. Thanks to the appropriation of funds for repairing and restoring the already known Cuzcan monuments, it has now been made possible to bring to light extensive and very important structures buried for many centuries.

These discoveries throw new light on the Incan culture which, for more than five hundred years, shared with that of Mexico the primacy among the civilizations of the American Continent. The first place to be disclosed to any extent was the citadel of Sajsawaman [sometimes spelled Sacsahuaman], erected on a hill near the present city of Cuzco. Until recently only the walls of great stones enclosing the north side of the fortress and some fragments of the eastern and western walls could be seen and admired. Now it is possible to study not only new sections of these defenses, but also most of the buildings which were situated within the fortified area. Ten rooms have been discovered, two with many niches; these were for sacerdotal and religious purposes (chapels and dependencies for worship, probably). Some rooms are connected with others by passages, turns, and doorways at an angle, which made necessary a strange zigzag course. On the highest part of the hill are the foundations of what were once dominant towers; two of them were square and the third was conical, similar to the *chullpas* or funerary towers of Silustani (Puno). The round tower is of particular interest, not only for its circular shape, but because it contained, in the best guarded and defended situation, the reservoir of drinking water which provided all parts of the citadel with this necessity. The cistern, which also is circular, held more than 10,000 gallons of water. Most of the conduits leading from it have been excavated; it was apparently provided with a siphon system, not yet discovered.

Each of the terraces was at least 25 or 30 feet high, to judge from the information given by the chroniclers of the conquest. The construction, so characteristic among the Incas, who liked unequal levels, is finer than that of other known buildings both in the external arrangement and in the admirable mastery of the material. Some structures communicate with each other by means of narrow alleys and remarkably graceful stairways which are supported by the walls



A WALL OF INCAN CONSTRUCTION AT SAJSAWAMAN.

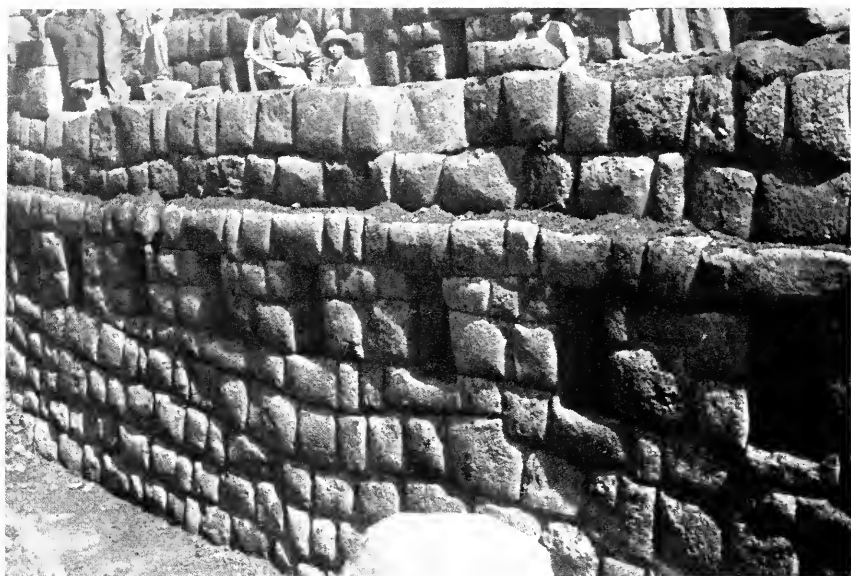


Courtesy of Luis E. Valcárcel.

RECENT EXCAVATIONS AT CUZCO.

The extensive archeological explorations carried on during recent months in and around Cuzco have brought to light many remarkable structures. Upper: Upon this circular foundation once stood a round tower which served as a reservoir of drinking water. Lower: This amphitheater is one of the recent discoveries in the Sanctuary of Kenko, about half a mile from Sajsawaman.

or cut through the slopes. At present, a whole town is being uncovered to the east of Sajsawaman, and to the north, outside the fortified area, most interesting architectural monuments are coming to light; these include amphitheatres, baths, residences, chapels, and tombs. All this makes it certain that Sajsawaman was the site of the old city, Upper Cuzco or Janan Kosko, of which historians of pre-Columbian Peru make mention. To the east, not much more than half a mile away, buildings of great artistic and religious significance



INCAN STRUCTURES AT SAJSAWAMAN.

Excavations at Sajsawaman confirm the belief that it was the old city of Upper Cuzco. Upper: These massive temple walls are typical of the pre-Columbian architecture of the Incas. Left: The unusual doorway with three step steps leads to a narrow passageway.

Courtesy of Luis E. Valcárcel.

have been discovered; they composed the sanctuary of Kenko. It is still possible to remark the foundations of a semicircular wall, in almost perfect condition, adorned with 17 niches larger than any hitherto found in Incan buildings, and to explore the passages and sepulchral chambers, the latter sacked at the time of the Spanish conquest. The sanctuary of Kenko was as well fortified as Sajsawaman.

The beautiful monuments of Tampumachay, an Incan spa, and Pukara, a miniature fortress, complete the roster of the monuments of Upper Cuzco. All these places may be visited by automobile, having been made accessible by recently constructed highways.

Besides these undertakings, others equally important have been carried out at Ollantaytambo, Pisaj, Pikillajta, Tarawasi, Tetekaka, and Sapantiana, and some monuments have been restored. These include the Temple of the Sun, the House of the Virgins of the Sun, and the palace of the first king of Cuzco, Manco Capac.

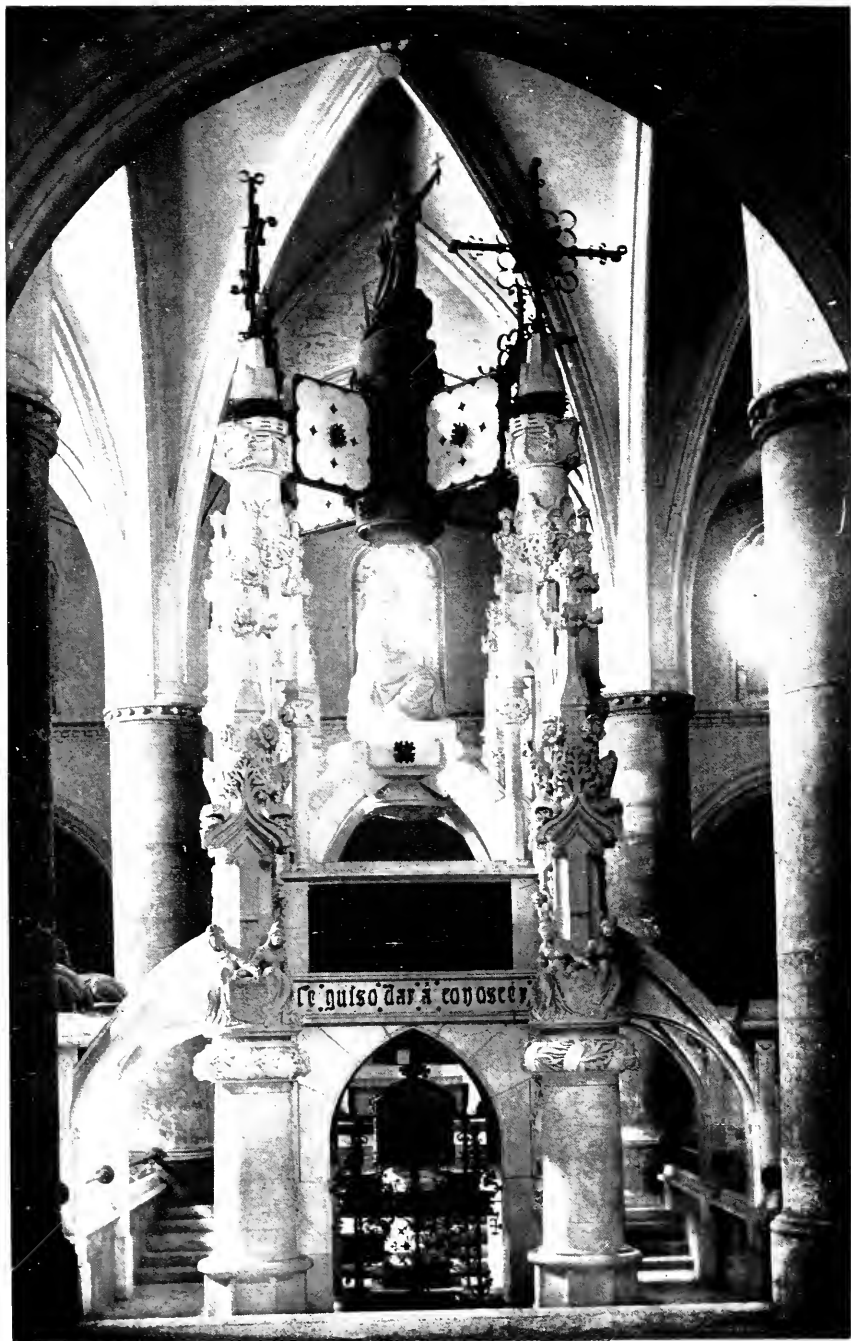
An Archeological Institute of Cuzco has been established; it now has important collections of objects for scientific study. It hopes for the support of similar American and European institutions, and invites scientists from all countries to undertake research expeditions in Cuzco.

A RELIC OF OLD CUZCO.

This plate of silver found in a temple at Tetekaka is ornamented with incrustations of sea shells and malachite.



Courtesy of Luis E. Valcárcel.



THE COLUMBUS MONUMENT, SANTO DOMINGO.

The imposing tomb of the first voyager to the New World, now in the central nave of the Cathedral, will occupy a prominent place in the chapel within the proposed Columbus Memorial Lighthouse.

“LANDS AWAY”

EMILY DICKINSON wrote the well-known lines:

There is no frigate like a book
To bear us lands away,
Nor any courser like a page
Of prancing poetry.

Delightful though such traveling is, no imagination is vivid enough to fill in all the details of a foreign scene. “I suppose you found everything just as you had pictured it after your reading”, it was remarked to a traveler returning from the west coast of South America. “No, everything was different”, was the reply. Different scenery, different people, different dress, different houses, different customs—so that you have the stimulating change of scene that comes from being “abroad.” Perhaps one of the reasons that President Roosevelt is taking a cruise this summer is to see how things really look in the places which he will visit. It is well known that the President loves the sea for itself, the lore of the ships, and the history and romance of the men who sailed them.

This summer and fall there are cruises to Latin America that take you abroad for one week or two months, or for a period between the two; or you may buy a one-way or round-trip ticket, and stop over here and there along the route in the ports which most attract you in themselves or serve as a means of reaching inland cities. In Cuzco, for instance, which celebrated the fourth century of the coming of the Spaniards last March, you will find archeological explorations going on; and even as you watch, you may see uncovered before your eyes some secret of the Incas, whose capital this was long before the coming of the white man, as Prescott relates in *The Conquest of Peru* and Means in *Ancient Civilizations of the Andes*. (A brief article on the explorations is found on pp. 481 to 485 of this issue.) To reach Cuzco you climb up and up by the railroad from Mollendo until you are riding along at the height of the Matterhorn, or perhaps you take a special airplane from Lima and make the journey in three hours instead of three days. About six weeks will enable you to visit Cuzco if you go by Grace Line boat and by train; and half the time if you fly by Pan American-Grace Airways to Arequipa.

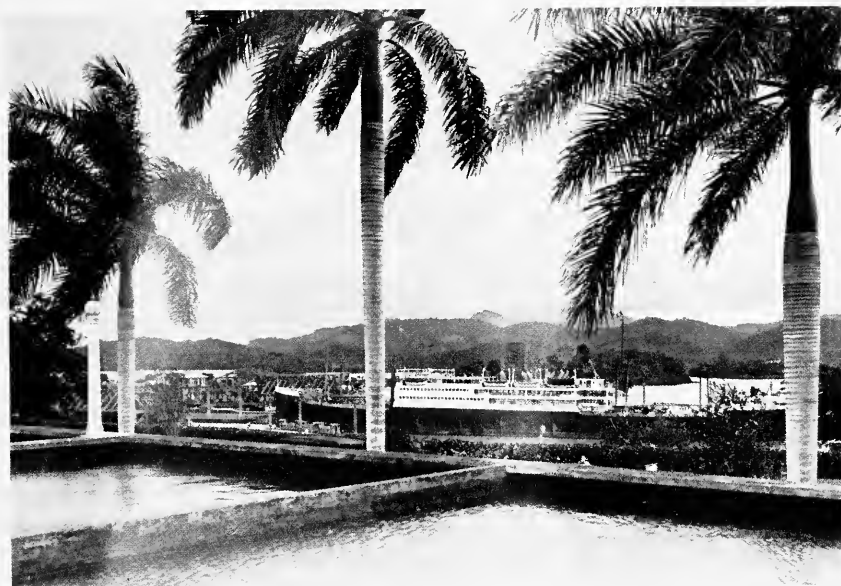
Several cruises are making a point of arriving at Buenos Aires for the Eucharistic Congress to be held there October 10-14. This is springtime in the southern hemisphere, and a delightful season in which to visit its countries.

How long is your vacation going to be? In a week you can go to Habana and back, with a stop at Nassau; in two weeks or less you can go to Habana, Vera Cruz, and Mexico City; to Santo Domingo and San Juan; to Port-au-Prince and Kingston, at minimum rates of from \$95 to \$175, usually with shore excursions included.

If you can stay away between two and three weeks, you can reach Panama and the Canal and see more of the Caribbean ports: Port Limón, Cartagena, Puerto Colombia and Barranquilla, Santa Marta, Curaçao, La Guaira, and Puerto Cabello, besides some of those already named, in combinations and permutations according to the length of the cruise and the steamship line you select, and at minimum rates ranging from \$160 to \$200. To South America and return in three weeks!

If you have still more time and money, perhaps you will go to California by boat and return by rail—or if you are in California or Washington, you can reverse the trip and go to New York by boat and home by rail—calling at Habana, and passing through the Panama Canal and by one line seeing some of the Colombian ports on the Caribbean, Central American ports on the Pacific and the charming Mexican city of Mazatlán. Don't miss Guatemala City and Antigua, if your ship calls at San José de Guatemala, or better yet, stop over for two weeks or more. The boats which make this trip are luxurious, and have dining rooms which open to the tropical sky. The water trip between New York and California costs from \$140 to \$250, depending on the route selected; \$90 more will take you "from home town to home town", completing the journey by rail. A connection may also be made in Panama for smaller boats which call at a number of Central American and Mexican ports on their way to California.

"The West Coast", "the East Coast"—are they familiar terms to you? And even if the terms are well known, is the reality? How about a trip of 25 days to Ecuador for \$245 or of 32 days to Peru for \$300, seeing the Canal and other ports on the way? In 39 days you can go all the way to Valparaiso on the West Coast of South America and return (\$425); in 41 days to Buenos Aires and back (\$540); or you may make a combination, down one coast, across the Andes, and up the other in about six weeks (\$600), visiting a number of ports on each side of the southern continent. The special cruise of the *Malolo* of the Matson Line leaving San Francisco September 16 and making the complete circuit of South America next fall will last 56 days and will take in more ports than are accessible ordinarily on a round-South-America trip. Another cruise—of 68 days—will also arrive in Buenos Aires in time for the Eucharistic Congress; this is via the Delta Line from New Orleans and costs \$550. It touches East Coast ports only. Doubtless other cruises planned to arrive at



MIRAFLORES LOCKS OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

The largest vessels pass through the Canal along the trail of the intrepid explorer, Balboa, who more than 4 centuries ago crossed the Isthmus to discover and claim for Spain the Pacific Ocean.



MONUMENT TO THE FRENCH BUILDERS OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

In memory of the French workers on the canal, the excavation for which began in 1882, this impressive monument was erected in 1922 by popular subscription. Within the semicircular arcade a series of 10 tablets records the story of the Canal from its inception as an idea shortly after the discovery of America.

Buenos Aires for this event will be announced later, and of course the regular sailings of east and west coast steamship lines can be chosen.

All lines are liberal with stopovers; if a cruise rate includes shore expenses, a stopover will naturally mean a higher cost. Agents are glad to answer inquiries and make suggestions. Don't forget that regular sailings are often equivalent to cruises.

The modern idea of ocean travel is to give the passengers a thoroughly good time between ports as well as ashore, according to their particular preferences, whether gay or sedate. Swimming, deck sports, dancing, cards, games of chance—take them all, or leave them all, as you like. Most ships carry a fairly large library for the use of passengers.

I. SOME SOUTH AMERICAN CITIES

It is four hundred fifteen years since Magellan sailed from Sanlúcar in Spain on the first voyage around the world—although he himself did not live to complete it—but it is only 20 years since it became possible actually to circumnavigate the continent of South America by means of the Panama Canal, which Viscount Bryce called "the greatest liberty Man has ever taken with Nature." Suppose we go on a cruise around this great continent, as you may really do in less than two months' time, down the west coast, through the strait which bears the name of its discoverer, and up the east coast through the Canal. It would hardly be possible to recapture quite the same eager curiosity which urged on the great mariners of the sixteenth century, but to everyone visiting new lands there comes a certain thrill of discovery.

Let us start from Balboa in the Canal Zone, Balboa whose name is that of another explorer familiar to all Americans. It is next door to Panama, the capital of the Republic of Panama. This is a city both new and old, with handsome government buildings and other edifices, in use or in ruins, which tell of the early days of Spanish settlement and of vicissitudes in the days of the English pirates. The charming plaza in front of the cathedral is ornamented by the busts of four founders of the Republic, and the narrow streets with overhanging balconies give to the city the fascinating atmosphere of old Spain. An archeological museum contains much of interest, and the Plaza de Francia commemorates the French pioneers of the Canal. The famous "gold altar" in the Church of San José is carved of wood and entirely overlaid with gold leaf, like many others enriching churches throughout Latin America.

On you go down the coast of South America, often within sight of the mountains, sometimes veiled in a blue haze and sometimes fully revealed. Buenaventura, the Pacific gateway to Colombia's fertile



Photograph by the United States Bureau of Public Roads.

RUINED CATHEDRAL TOWER IN OLD PANAMA.

Founded in 1571, the old city of Panama became a wealthy port of transshipment for the commerce of the New World with Spain. In 1671, after a furious battle with the pirate Morgan, the Spaniards set fire to the city rather than allow it to pass into the possession of the attackers.



PATIO OF THE PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, PANAMA.

Within 2 years after the destruction of the old city, a new Panama rose about 6 miles distant. Numerous buildings erected under Spanish direction at that period now stand alongside of modern structures. Panama is one of the cities to be visited by President Roosevelt.



THE WATERFRONT, GUAYAQUIL.

A wide boulevard extends along the waterfront of Ecuador's commercial metropolis. The monument commemorates the historic meeting of Bolívar and San Martín in 1822.

valleys and highlands, is being rebuilt after a disastrous fire. It is a great port for shipping the mild Colombian coffee.

Thirty miles up the palm-lined Guayas River from the Pacific is Guayaquil, the leading port of Ecuador. Its water front is paralleled by a boulevard one of whose ornaments is the hemicycle commemorating the epoch-making meeting of Bolívar and San Martín near that spot in 1822. It was after this interview, of which no detailed account has come down in history, that San Martín withdrew from the struggle for South American independence, thus allowing the views of Bolívar to prevail. An impressive monument to Sucre, Bolívar's chief lieutenant, who won the crucial battle for Ecuadorean freedom, meets your eye as you walk from the customhouse between the large government buildings. The municipal library-museum has many objects of interest, including relics of General Villamil, born in New Orleans, who was one of the first explorers of the Galápagos Islands. Cacao and vanilla may be seen spread out near warehouses drying for exportation, and a launch ride up the Daule, a branch of the Guayas, will afford an opportunity for seeing boats coming to market and perhaps for catching a glimpse of alligators on the bars.

Unless you are also calling at Manta, Guayaquil is the place to buy what have long been erroneously known as "Panama" hats, so called because the Isthmus was a center for their export. The former port is nearer to the best centers of manufacture. (See pp. 522 to 525.)

Across the river from Guayaquil is the terminus of the railroad to Quito, which climbs through a narrow gorge all one day, past swamps where white egrets fly, past sugarcane fields and cacao groves to Riobamba, at the foot of great Chimborazo. You may either go on by motor or spend the night, traveling next day down a lovely valley guarded by snow peaks to Quito. The Indians in their bright costumes cultivating the steep slopes of the mountains or gathered at the stations, perhaps twirling spindles as they wait, given a unforgettable



INTERIOR OF THE CHURCH OF LA COMPAÑÍA DE JESÚS, QUITO.

Shortly after the founding of Quito in 1534, construction was commenced on some of the magnificent churches, of which this Jesuit church is a noteworthy example. The altars are entirely covered with gold leaf, as are the geometric traceries on the dark-red background of walls and pillars.

note to the journey—a note which is repeated, with variations of costume and type, all through the Andean highlands.

Quito itself is unsurpassable for a lover of art. Its churches with their magnificent carved and gilded altars and polychrome images of the saints are all too little known. The city was an art center in colonial days from which paintings and statues were exported all over the Americas, and has today an excellent National School of Art under the direction of the painter Víctor Mideros. The city, notwithstanding its modernity, preserves an exotic charm compounded of antiquity, pride of race and history, and Indian picturesqueness.

Ecuador has in the Hacienda Río Negro a dude ranch run by Americans where a glimpse of the jungle may be obtained under comfortable conditions. A special conducted tour visiting this ranch and many other interesting places in Ecuador is to leave New York via the Grace Line on July 7, returning August 28, and other arrangements may be made for later visits.

Three days' sail along the barren coast brings the traveler to Callao, the port of Lima. The customhouse is famous because it occupies the building, now modernized, known as the Real Felipe, where the Peruvian royalists who refused to surrender after the battle of Ayacucho made their last desperate stand. They were besieged



PLAZA DE ARMAS, LIMA, PERU.

Among the buildings which border this historic plaza are the Cathedral, wherein rest the remains of Pizarro, the Government Palace, and the arcaded shops dating from colonial times.

here for more than a year, and offered the most bitter and heroic resistance to the Republicans. When they finally surrendered, of the more than 2,000 men with their officers who had been in the fortress only 400 were left.

Eight miles over one of several concrete highways brings the visitor to Lima, the "City of the Kings", founded 400 years ago next January by Francisco Pizarro. In this year when the State of Maryland is celebrating the tercentenary of its settlement one's thoughts turn to those other settlers in Spanish and Portuguese America a hundred years before, to the tremendous obstacles which they overcame, the civilizations that were old when they arrived, and the modern cities that their descendants, like those of the Cavaliers and the Puritans, have built.



IN THE ANDES.

A familiar sight in the highlands is the Indian with the indispensable llama as his sole companion. Often the plaintive notes of the "quena" resound across the rugged vastness.

Here in the cathedral of Lima lie the bones of Francisco Pizarro; here in the inner patio of the Government Palace which he founded, and which is the residence of the Peruvian President, flourishes a fig tree which he is said to have planted; and here a block from the fine Hotel Bolívar is the exposition of national industries where Peru's striking progress in many lines of manufacturing may be observed.

There are several interesting museums in Lima. In the Archeological Museum there are to be seen the most exquisite specimens of pottery, textiles, and feather work of the various Peruvian cultures; in the Bolivarian Museum, the old house in Magdalena Vieja which was the headquarters of San Martín and Bolívar successively, are many interesting mementos of the wars of independence. Among these is the original capitulation of Ayacucho signed by Sucre and the last Spanish viceroy, La Serna, by which Spain yielded forever her rule in South America. In the National School of Fine Arts, under the direction of José Sabogal, an able painter and maker of woodcuts, future Peruvian artists may be seen at work. The Torre Tagle Palace, now the Foreign Office, is an example of colonial architecture which no one should miss.

A visit by motor car to the ruins of Pachacámac, 25 miles from Lima, is of great interest. They are believed to be more than 2,000 years old. Prescott relates what happened there on the coming of the Spaniards.

"From the charm of the Rímac Valley and the 'City of the Kings' it is difficult to escape", says Annie S. Peek in *The South American Tour*. But the boat sails farther south along the arid coast, and after calling at Mollendo, the port for Arequipa and the highlands, and at Arica, another railway terminus for Bolivia, arrives at the great port of Valparaíso, Chile. There, if the fates are kind, you may see the mighty cordillera of the Andes rising snowcapped 150



A PATIO GATE IN LA MONEDA, SANTIAGO.

There is a wealth of architectural beauty in the handsome edifice constructed between 1786-1805 to house the mint. In later years it has served as the executive mansion and offices for some government departments.

Courtesy of Chile Publishing Co.

miles away. If it is spring when you arrive at Valparaíso and the Chilean National holiday, September 18, is over, the fashionable summer resort of Viña del Mar, a few miles away on the coast, will have opened its casino to the visitors who throng there from Chile and other South American countries for the season. On one of the hills on the outskirts of Valparaíso may be seen the imposing technical school of the Santa María Foundation,

Traveling up to Santiago, three hours away, on a train pulled by an electric locomotive, is a delight, for the hills rise green one behind the other towards the Andes; Californians will feel at home when they see the way bordered with enormous California poppies, called by the Chileans “golden thimbles”.

Except Rio de Janeiro, no capital in the world has a more striking position. Standing in the great central valley of Chile, it looks out on one side over a fertile plain to the wooded slopes of the Coast Range, and on the other looks up to the gigantic chain of the Cordillera, rising nineteen thousand feet above it, furrowed by deep glens into which glaciers pour down, with snowy wastes behind. At Santiago, as at Innsbruck, one sees the vista of a long, straight street closed by towering mountains that crown it with white as the sea crowns with blue the streets of Venice. But here the mountains are more than twice as high as those of the Tyrolean city and they never put off their snowy vesture. Wherever one walks or drives through the city in the beautiful public parks and on the large open grounds of the race course, these fields of ice are always before the eye, whether wreathed with cloud or glittering against an ardent sky.

So wrote Viscount Bryce in his *South America*, a book unsurpassed for descriptions of scenery although now out of date as far as descriptions of many cities are concerned, so rapidly have material changes taken place since its publication in 1912 and revision somewhat later.

In Santiago, a handsome city with many tall, substantial buildings, the visitor will find much to see. The capitol with its lovely gardens; La Moneda, the Colonial mint, where the President lives and where various government departments have offices; the Cerro Santa Lucía with a statue of Valdivia, founder of the city (perhaps you have read *The Conqueror's Lady*, by Stella Burke May); the Art Museum; the splendid National Library; and the popular and fashionable race course with its marvelous view of the mountains. One of the most interesting rooms in the National Library is that devoted to the books given in 1925 by Don José Toribio Medina, the celebrated historian and bibliographer who died several years ago. It is beautifully panelled in dark wood; in spaces between the panels are frescoes of Don José Toribio at work, for he not only wrote more than 400 works but also set type and printed some of them himself in his own home. He will reenter our story later on.

From Santiago the traveler may go over the Andes by rail and across the pampas to Buenos Aires, or on the cruise of the *Malolo*, of the Matson Line, he may continue southward along the Chilean coast to the Strait of Magellan. “After going and taking the course to the fifty-second degree of the said Antarctic sky”, wrote a young Italian who accompanied Magellan, “on the day of the Eleven Thousand Virgins (October 21), we found, by a miracle, a strait which we called the Cape of the Eleven Thousand Virgins; this strait is 110 leagues long, which are 440 miles, and almost as wide as less than half a league, and it issues in another sea, which is called the peaceful sea;

it is surrounded by very great and high mountains covered with snow." And he added, "I think that there is not in the world a more beautiful country, or a better strait than this one." The real length of the strait is about 200 miles, not 440, but naturally it seemed very long to sailors who took more than a month to traverse it.

"As our eye sweeps over the city [of Punta Arenas] from the boat-laden harbor", said Ruth Sedgwick in the *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for March 1933, "we see nothing but bleakness, for the low surrounding hills, which even in summer have patches of snow, can support only sparse grass. We disembark at a fine, long



THE STRAIT OF MAGELLAN.

Occasional cruises to South America as well as ships on regular schedule permit the visitor to traverse the strait which Magellan in 1520 was the first to cross.

pier, beside the tall cranes which did so much hoisting of cargo in the good old days of prosperity when, before the opening of the Panama Canal, opera and theatrical companies would often stop en route from Europe or Buenos Aires to the western coast of South America.

"In the center of the city there is a pretty plaza whose trees, grass, and flowers are tended with great care, while in the middle stands a statue of Magellan, the first to explore the strait, in 1520. Around the plaza are found good-sized stores and beautiful houses, which belong to those very wealthy families that own almost all of the commercial activities of the region (ranches, boat lines, stores, etc.)."



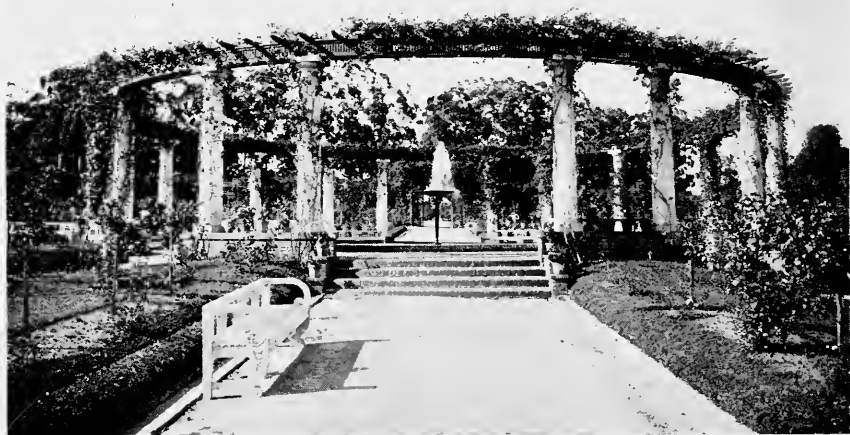
THE NATIONAL THEATRE, BUENOS AIRES.

Within the splendid Colón Theatre—the largest opera house in the Americas—have been heard the greatest voices of the operatic stage. The Government subsidizes the opera company.

Now we sail northward to Buenos Aires, the metropolis of Argentina, on the shore of the great Río de la Plata. "Buenos Aires", says Harry L. Foster in his practical guidebook *If You go to South America*, "although not so tall as New York is indisputably handsomer." Visitors from the United States during the Argentine winter will probably find in the great Teatro Colón, the largest opera house in the Americas, many of their own operatic favorites singing; they will find a subway very similar to those at home, and magnificent buildings for the government and for business. Nevertheless, the whole atmosphere is different, and no matter how much you read about Argentina, there will always be something to surprise you, some unanticipated detail to please you. The Casa Rosada (Pink House) where the President lives; the capitol; Palermo Park and its great race course; El Tigre, the famous resort on the Río de la Plata; and the magnificent docks are all well worth seeing. The season for art exhibits will have begun in November and, of course, the National Gallery and other museums hold much of interest. The artistic movement in Argentina is very strong, and there are many artists of

importance. The Instituto Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano at 686, Maipú, is engaged in teaching English to several thousand Argentinians, and in this and other ways promoting a better mutual knowledge and understanding between Argentina and the United States. *La Prensa*, an excellent newspaper which is estimated to carry more cable news than *The New York Times*, has a magnificent building in which a library, museums, and medical and dental dispensaries are maintained.

Across the Río de la Plata—100 miles wide—it is an overnight sail to Montevideo, the capital of Uruguay, the smallest of South American republics and one of the most advanced in matters of social legislation. Its buildings are fine, especially the capitol, where the



A ROSE GARDEN, MONTEVIDEO.

The parks of the Uruguayan capital and particularly the Prado with its rose gardens have achieved world fame for their beauty.

Seventh Pan American Conference was held last December. Montevideo's rose gardens are famous, and no city has more attractive recreational places than the many lovely beaches nearby, thronged by thousands during the summer season. Water sports are naturally very popular in the Uruguayan capital; there are many clubs for rowing and swimming. It may be added that Uruguay won the world championship in soccer at the Olympic Games in 1924.

Next we call at Santos, the leading coffee port of the world, whence is shipped more than two-thirds of the coffee drunk by Americans. One of the city's monuments honors Friar Bartolomé Gusmão who, in 1709, constructed a most curious airship, paid for by the King of Portugal. It actually rose to the height of the palace in Lisbon before



THE COPACABANA SECTION OF RIO DE JANEIRO.

Of incomparable beauty is the Brazilian capital which spreads between and up the more gentle slopes of the fantastically shaped mountains which outline the bay.

it crashed. The train to São Paulo arrives after an hour and a quarter in the industrial capital of Brazil, where textile manufactures of cotton and silk are flourishing. (Much of the silk is raised in the State of São Paulo.) Among the many imposing buildings are a skyscraper 25 stories high, the municipal theater, and the Ypiranga Museum, built on the site on which independence was declared by Dom Pedro I on September 7, 1822. "São Paulo bears the impress of energy," remarks *The South American Handbook*.

And so to Rio the incomparable, in its fairy-like setting of fantastic mountains, lovely sea, and tropical foliage. The avenue of royal palms in the Botanical Gardens, all descended from a single one planted in 1808 by Dom João VI; the Monroe Palace, erected for the meeting place of the Third Pan American Congress and now housing the Senate; the Avenida Rio Branco, cut 20 years ago through the most crowded area of the city in 6 months, a feat which only an enterprising and energetic nation could accomplish; the National Museum; the School of Fine Arts; the National Library; the shops with Brazilian diamonds, aquamarines, beryls, tourmalines, and other precious or semiprecious gems are noteworthy, but above all the views from Corcovado, the Sugarloaf, Tijuca, and along the mountain road to the summer capital at Petropolis, will long be remembered.

From the middle of August to the middle of November an important International Sample Fair will take place in Rio. This year's fair

commemorates the centennial of the designation of the city as the nation's capital.

Northward again, past the mouth of the Amazon, so vast a river that its turbid waters may be distinguished 180 miles out at sea. It was in 1500 that Vicente Yáñez Pinzón sailed down the coast, observed this phenomenon, and upon investigation discovered the mouth of the mightiest of rivers, which he called the Fresh Water Sea. It was by chance, however, that it was first explored throughout its length. Late in 1541 Francisco de Orellana, who had joined Gonzalo Pizarro in a search for El Dorado and the Land of Cinnamon east of Quito, went down the Coca to the Napo and thence along that river to look for supplies in Indian villages, since the herd of 2,000 hogs and all other food with which the expedition had started 10 months before over the Andes and through the jungle were exhausted, and the Spaniards near starvation. He and about sixty companions, including the sick, set out in a brigantine which the expeditioners had built. It was not until after 9 days' travel, rowing with the swift current, that they found any food, and it then appeared impossible to return upstream, although Orellana considered it his duty to Pizarro. However, his companions petitioned him not to put them in further danger by attempting what could not be done, and he finally agreed.

Pizarro made his way back to Quito, much incensed by Orellana's "treason", the onus of which the latter has borne, apparently unjustly, to this day. Orellana and his companions finally started on down the Napo, which flows into the Marañón, one of the chief affluents of the great Brazilian river. After more than six months, in which they built another boat and passed through many perils from the forces of nature and from Indians, including women warriors whom they thought to be like the Amazons of Greek mythology, they came out on August 26, 1542, at the mouth of the Fresh Water Sea, and finally reached the island of Cubagua, north of the Venezuelan coast. It is thanks to the researches of Don José Toribio Medina, published in a small edition of 200 copies in 1894, and this year issued in English translation,¹ that Orellana is absolved from his "treason".

Coming on around South America you arrive at another important seaport, La Guaira, which has a beautiful harbor set against a background of mountains. Most travelers go at once to Caracas, about 20 miles away and 3,000 feet higher, over an excellent highway. The Venezuelan capital has many attractive points of interest for visitors: The city squares; the Government palaces and the University; the

¹ *The Discovery of the Amazon*, according to the account of Friar Gaspar de Carvajal and other documents, as published with an introduction by José Toribio Medina. Translated from the Spanish by Bertram T. Lee; edited by H. C. Heaton, Professor of Romance Languages, New York University. American Geographical Society, New York, 1934.



CARACAS, VENEZUELA.

About 20 miles inland from the seaport of La Guaira, by automobile, over one of the most picturesque roads of the continent, is Caracas, the capital and natal city of the Liberator, Simón Bolívar, whose birthplace is now a national shrine.

cathedral and other churches, particularly the Holy Chapel set on a commanding eminence, are all well worth a visit.

In the Pantheon lie the remains of Bolívar, the Venezuelan leader who freed five South American Republics of an area more than two and a half times as great as that of the original 13 colonies of the United States, in a series of herculean campaigns across and among the Andes. Bolívar is revered throughout the Americas as one of the great founders of Pan Americanism. His house in Caracas, a delightful example of a fine colonial mansion, is now a museum and contains many mementos of the Liberator, including a miniature of Washington, sent to Bolívar by George Washington Parke Custis. The house is adorned by a series of impressive paintings by Tito Salas. Other historical paintings may be found in the Elliptical Salon, the Ministry of Foreign Relations, and the City Hall. A splendid concrete road leads to Maracay, about 100 miles away on Lake Valencia, where there is a handsome modern hotel in beautiful surroundings.

Continuing along the northern coast of South America you come to Puerto Colombia, 17 miles from Barranquilla, at the mouth of the Magdalena River. A recent visitor writes as follows of her stop there: "Our next stop was at Puerto Colombia. We drove 17 miles up the

Magdalena River to Barranquilla, a thriving city. . . . There is a large air field there, and all the oil men go by plane to the various oil fields. We had dinner at a lovely, very modern hotel, built crescent-shape, the center of it square, but with curved wings which were only one room through for coolness. Colonnaded balconies on each floor overlooked the beautiful gardens."

Not much farther west is Cartagena, which celebrated in January 1933 the four-hundredth anniversary of its founding. It is one of the most romantic cities of the Spanish Main. Because it was a port for the shipment of gold and silver to Spain, it was often made the object of attack by buccaneers, notwithstanding its massive walls, which are still standing. The same traveler writes: "The next stop



Courtesy of "Colombia "

THE HOTEL DEL PRADO, BARRANQUILLA.

The modern and progressive city of Barranquilla is destined to become a more and more important seaport with the completion of the improvements at the mouth of the Magdalena.

was to me the most interesting of the whole trip; Cartagena, also in Colombia. It is a walled city, the oldest one in South America, I believe. . . . We drove all around on top of the walls along by the sea; on a high promontory is a convent which was attacked by Morgan's raiders. There is also an interesting old fort with subterranean passages."

A short sail from Cartagena along the coast of Panama brings the ship to Cristóbal, at the Atlantic end of the Canal. The adjoining city in Panama is Colón—the two names together give the Spanish form for the name of Christopher Columbus. The trip through the Canal consumes about 6 hours. The locks, the green shores of Gatún Lake, the cuts through the mountain range, offer a panorama of never-failing interest, which is far more impressive than can be imagined.



CARTAGENA, COLOMBIA.

This is one of President Roosevelt's ports of call. During 1933 the quadricentennial of the founding of Cartagena de Indias was celebrated. Philip II ordered the construction of its fortifications at a reputed cost of 80,000,000 pesos gold. They are today among the interesting relics of its glorious past. Upper: This is a section of the massive wall which enclosed the old city. Center: The picturesque streets of Cartagena are a fusion of the old with the new. Lower: An example of the defenses built at strategic points on the city walls.

Now we are out at Balboa on the Pacific side in another beautiful harbor surrounded by green hills and have completely circumnavigated the continent of South America, a distance of about 12,000 miles.

II. SOME CARIBBEAN PORTS

Three days out from New York is Habana, a city of true Spanish charm. Along the low line of the coast the tall hotels and the monument to the *Maine* are seen on the Malecón, or broad shore drive; now



THE INQUISITION PALACE, CARTAGENA.

The construction of the palace, now in a perfect state of preservation, was ordered by a royal decree of Philip III, with authorization by Pope Paul V. Few Latin American cities possess such a wealth of historic monuments.

the boat comes to Morro Castle, a sight long familiar through photographs. Past the castle through the narrow entrance of the bay you sail into a perfect land-locked harbor. A short drive through the narrow old streets brings you to the handsome boulevard of the Prado. The magnificent capitol, the President's palace, the university on its commanding site, the fine residential suburb of the Vedado, the old cathedral, the ancient Convent of Santa Clara, now the Department of Public Works, the beautiful and popular casino, the show of the

streets themselves from the hotels or open cafés—these offer much to be seen and done. The famous Cuban cigars and rum may be bought here, of course.

Other parts of the island are easily reached by the fine concrete Central Highway. Pinar del Río, where the famous tobacco is grown, has superb scenery; Viñales Valley is said to rival the Vale of Kashmir. West of Habana are the delightful cities of Camagüey and Santiago, to mention only two.

Just east of Cuba lies the island named “Hispaniola” by Columbus and now divided between the two countries of Haiti and the Dominican Republic. Port au Prince has a mountain-ringed harbor. In the National Palace is preserved the anchor of the *Santa María*, one of Columbus’s caravels. The Palace of Justice, the cathedral, and other buildings are of interest. The Champ de Mars is the center of the city’s life, especially in the evening. French is the language of Haiti, polished and suave among the upper classes, many of whom are educated in France, but spoken in a creole dialect by the country people. The imposing citadel of Henri Christophe is some distance from Port au Prince, but perhaps you will have time to visit it if your trip allows a few days here.

Santo Domingo’s pride is the charming old cathedral where the bones of Columbus are interred under a gleaming monument of white marble. In this city the nations of the world will unite, under the leadership of the Pan American Republics, in erecting a memorial lighthouse to the Great Discoverer. The Archbishop of Santo Domingo is still the Primate of the Indies, a title which carries one back in thought to the time when the Spaniards were settling the island and Columbus’s son was building the mansion whose walls are still standing after more than four centuries. Nowhere perhaps more than here will you have a sense of contact with the exploit of the “Admiral of the Ocean Seas”, as he proudly termed himself upon his return to Spain. The history of Santo Domingo is also connected with the name of Fray Bartolomé de las Casas, the soldier who turned priest and then took up the cause of the Indians enslaved and put to hard labor by the conquerors.

Less than 4 days sailing time from New York and 10 hours flying time from Miami, Fla., lie the palm-fringed shores of Puerto Rico, popularly known as “the Isle of Enchantment”. San Juan Bautista de Puerto Rico, the capital, is the resting place of the Spanish conquistador, Juan Ponce de León, who devoted his life to the search for the Fountain of Youth. Morro Castle, La Fortaleza (the governor’s residence), San Cristobal, and other century-old fortresses and monuments still remain from those heroic and romantic days, but in Puerto Rico “the centuries meet”, and among these reminders of



THE CAPITOL, HABANA.

The glistening dome of the capitol dominates the Habana skyline. In this view from Central Park a corner of the building which houses the Centro Gallego and National Theater is seen at the right.

the past the visitor will see up-to-date department stores, motion-picture theaters, and hospitable hotels and cafés. A splendid system of highways enables the visitor to see the whole island in a relatively short time.

Port Limón on the Caribbean is the gateway to San José, the capital of Costa Rica. Many bananas are shipped from the port; perhaps you will be surprised to find that the familiar way in which a bunch is hung in your corner store is really upside-down from the way in



PORT AU PRINCE, HAITI.

A picturesque port of call of some of the West Indies cruises is the Haitian capital. The white National Palace stands out in bold relief against the tropical verdure of the hills.

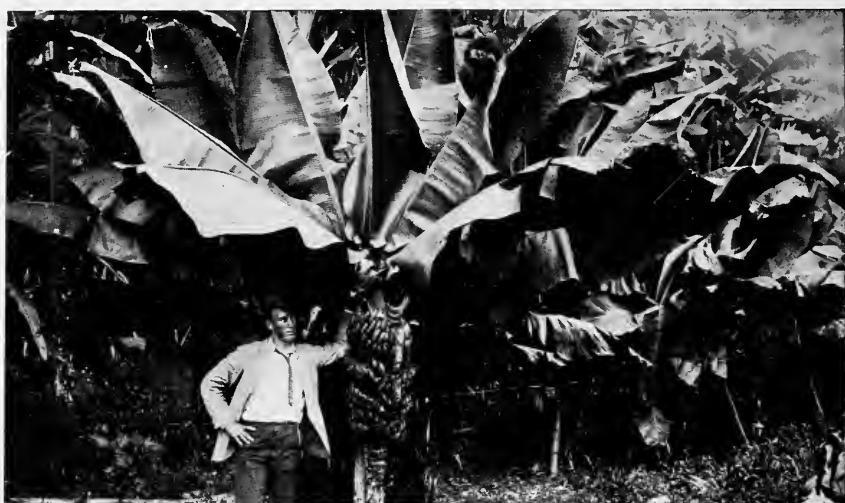


INDEPENDENCE PARK, SANTO DOMINGO.

The capital of the Dominican Republic may well be called the "cradle of the New World," for it was the first permanent European settlement in this hemisphere.

which it grows. Bananas are all cut green, so that a banana plantation is never ornamental with ripe fruit, as is an apple orchard or an orange grove. A trip of 100 miles through beautiful tropical scenery leads to San José, a hospitable city in the highlands. Besides the excellent Government buildings, the archeological museum is of much interest.

Guatemala may be entered from Puerto Barrios on the Caribbean or San José de Guatemala on the Pacific. From either side the trip to the capital is picturesque and lovely. The patches of corn tilted on the sides of the mountains at so great an angle that it seems as if the cultivator would fall off, the coffee and banana plantations, the cones of the volcanoes which make the backbone of Central America, all are



A BANANA PLANTATION IN COSTA RICA.

The banana, one of the principal commodities exported by the Central American republics, is also a food staple in the tropics.

features of the Guatemalan landscape. The Indians are particularly noteworthy for their handwoven costumes of bright hues; each woman's blouse shows by its traditional design the village from which she comes. The old buildings and ruins of Antigua, the ancient capital of Guatemala, and of all Central America in the days of the Spanish colony, will cast a spell over the visitor.

"So, when you have read the tale," wrote Dorothy H. Popenoe in the foreword to *Santiago de los Caballeros de Guatemala*, "when you are prepared to see that battle-scarred old hero, Bernal Díaz del Castillo, ride through the cobbled streets, his sword clanking by his side; when you are ready to meet good Bishop Marroquín as he steps down from the chancel after saying mass: go to Antigua.

"Wander through her roofless churches; peep into patios where roses bloom and the tinkling splash of water tells of the days when



Courtesy of the Club Turista de Guatemala.

PALACE OF THE CAPTAINS GENERAL, ANTIGUA, GUATEMALA.

Among the numerous remains of the former seat of government, which was practically demolished by an earthquake in 1773, is the impressive restored palace which flanks one side of the main plaza.

men rode forth to conquer. And above all, go, if you can, when moonbeams play upon the hoary walls, and the great cones of the volcanoes stand up like sentinels outlined against the night."

The present capital of Guatemala is a charming city, with excellent hotels. Its altitude is about the same as that of Denver. The most accessible Maya remains are those at Quiriguá, on the way inland from Puerto Barrios.

The fifteenth of August is an excellent time at which to be in Guatemala, for then the August fair takes place, in the capital and in all centers, and Indians from remote regions gather with their pottery, baskets, textiles, and other wares for sale. In the villages religious ceremonial dances and other observances take place, for this is the feast of the Assumption of the Virgin.

Between Guatemala and the United States lies Mexico, which is more and more becoming a popular playground for Americans. Soon its mountains and valleys will be as well known to the American tourist as the far more distant, but no more lovely, scenery of Switzerland. No peak of the Alps is so high as the Mexican Popocatepetl; Switzerland boasts no Pyramids of the Sun and Moon, no magnificent prehistoric remains to equal those of Chichén-Itzá, no Renaissance churches surpassing those of colonial Mexico—who does not fall in love with the glittering varicolored tiled domes of Puebla?—no national hero more self-sacrificing than Cuauhtémoc.



Photograph by Beatrice Newhall.

DETAIL OF A MURAL IN THE NATIONAL PALACE, MEXICO CITY.

On the main stairway walls of the National Palace, Diego Rivera, generally acclaimed one of the most notable mural painters of the present day, has executed a remarkable series of paintings depicting the history of the country from the time of the Conquest.

Perhaps you sailed to Mexico long ago via the pages of Prescott's *Conquest of Mexico* and Mme. Calderón de la Barca's *Life in Mexico*, or more recently by Stuart Chase's *Mexico* and Anita Brenner's *Idols Behind Altars*, and *Your Mexican Holiday*. The climate of Mexico City, which is 7,500 feet high, is delightfully cool in summer, and there are many fascinating excursions to suit all tastes. "Visitors who have but a week or two to spare come to Mexico City", says Frances Toor in her *Guide to Mexico*, "and without spending a single night away from the capital get the sensation of a very different civilization." A trip of only 13 days will give a complete change of scene—the mental refreshment of "going abroad".

Consult your local travel agencies for the latest advices on cruises, regular sailings, and rates; or write, among others, to the Ward, United Fruit, Grace, Munson, Furness Prince, Red D, Porto Rico, Colombian, Dollar, Panama Pacific, Matson, Booth, Lloyd Brasileiro, Panama Railroad, Standard Fruit, Bull, or Delta Line, depending on where you are going. Sometimes other lines run special trips and of course the journey to Mexico may be made entirely by rail, or by a rail and water combination. You will probably see advertisements in your newspapers and magazines, and additional information will gladly be supplied by the Pan American Union upon request.



RECENT ECONOMIC TRENDS IN LATIN AMERICA

By H. GERALD SMITH

Section of Financial Information, Pan American Union

DURING recent months distinctly favorable economic developments have been noted in several Latin American countries. Two influences appear to have been responsible for the improvement that has taken place: World prices of various important Latin American export commodities have risen, with a naturally beneficial effect; and internally, broad governmental recovery programs and other domestic influences in a number of republics have had a part in a return to more prosperous conditions.

Prices of such important Latin American products as coffee, tin, wool, copper, hides and skins, sugar, cotton, and petroleum have shown increases as compared with the levels prevailing in the early part of 1933. Such price increases have not only had a beneficial result internally, but also, by increasing the value of exports, have had a favorable effect upon the balances of international payments of several of the countries.

During the recent years of depression, the Latin American nations generally have embarked upon nationalistic programs to render themselves more economically independent. Measures to this end have included the fostering of domestic industries, either through raising tariffs on imported finished products, or in some cases, lowering duties on machinery and other products in order to promote various domestic manufacturing processes; while in several countries programs have been undertaken, through crop diversification, to lessen the amount of imports required, especially of foodstuffs.

Developments in past months, however, have shown that Latin American countries are still predominantly subject to conditions in world markets, for it has been the increase in prices and the stimulation of exports which have had a much more important influence on a return to more prosperous conditions than the internal measures that have been adopted.

Latin American governments have been fully aware of this situation in the planning and development of their programs for national economic recovery. For this reason, there have appeared in the programs of several Republics two features which at first glance might appear to be in conflict, but which actually take into consideration the existing realities of the international economic position of

these countries. Thus, while practically all nations on one hand have aimed at a degree of economic self-sufficiency through curtailment of imports of commodities which could be produced locally and have also taken other nationalistic measures, at the same time the fact that economic welfare depends to such a large degree upon world conditions has not been forgotten. Thus, as a part of national recovery programs, either governmental or semigovernmental entities have been established with the purpose of enabling the respective country to compete more advantageously for a share in world markets.

The fact has been commonly recognized throughout the period of depression that a combination of higher prices and increased volume of exports would be probably the most important single factor in a return to more prosperous conditions in the countries of Latin America. A continuance during the coming months of the upward price movement noted above, together with a sustained volume of exports, will naturally be of great economic and financial value to Latin America. The interesting question arises, however, as to what position nationalistic programs will continue to hold when and as more prosperous conditions return. Nationalistic programs have been a direct outgrowth of the decline in foreign trade resulting from the world depression, and such programs have been primarily measures of protection adopted by each nation. The need for such protection, however, tends to diminish as world trade rises toward more normal levels. At first glance, therefore, it would seem that nationalistic programs in Latin America would gradually recede into the background as the present serious conditions give way before an improvement in the general world trade situation. On the other hand, there are aspects of such programs of what might be termed a positive nature, designed to secure a definite place in world markets, as contrasted with phases which might be called negative, or merely protectionist against the effects of world conditions, over which Latin American nations can exercise but little influence.

In the former group, the positive aspects of national recovery programs, may be listed measures designed so to consolidate and strengthen important national industries as to enable these industries to present a united national front in competing for a place in world markets. As examples of this there may be cited the legislation adopted in El Salvador ¹ and Costa Rica ² to provide for the centralization of the coffee industry, dominant in each country, under the auspices of a semigovernmental organization. These organizations were designed not only to provide for the improved cultivation and preparation of coffee, but also for a more efficient marketing system

¹ See "Recent Financial Legislation Enacted in El Salvador", *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union, November 1933, pp. 882-888.

² See "Institute for the Defense of Costa Rican Coffee", *Ibid.*, January 1934, pp. 69-70.

in the principal countries where Costa Rican and Salvadorean coffee is sold. There may also be mentioned the establishment in Chile of a nitrate and iodine sales corporation, for the purpose of permitting the nitrate industry to compete more advantageously against synthetic nitrates in foreign markets; and the establishment in Argentina of boards designed to improve conditions for producers of grains and dairy products by fixing basic minimum prices to be paid to such producers by these boards, the boards then selling the commodities purchased to exporters, any losses resulting from the transactions being covered by certain profits derived from governmental dealings in foreign exchange.

On the other hand, what might be termed negative, or protectionist policies, include such measures as control of operations in foreign exchange, which have been placed in effect in half the Latin American nations, in order to prevent the flight of capital to other countries, to hinder too great a drain upon the national gold reserves for payments abroad, and to control imports, especially those types not deemed of necessity during a depressed business period.

The results of exchange control, however, have not in all cases achieved the purposes for which the control system was established. Currencies were maintained, in the official operations of the exchange control authorities, at a rate close to or at the parity level. Imports were curtailed to some extent, but at the same time the high level to which the currency was artificially held had an adverse effect upon exports which had to compete with products from other nations with depreciated currencies. As the effect of this became noted in various countries, demands came from exporting groups to allow currencies to be freed of official restrictions and seek their supply and demand level, or at least to permit some relaxation of exchange control. In response to such demands, recent months have witnessed steps toward at least a partial relaxation of exchange control, in Colombia, Ecuador, and Brazil, to mention but three countries, chiefly through permitting a certain portion of the available exchange to be sold at rates determined by supply and demand between buyers and sellers. There has also been in existence, of course, during the period of exchange control, an unofficial market, outside the control of the exchange commissions, in which exchange was purchased and sold at rates fixed by supply and demand, and in several countries the transactions in this market have been of considerable importance. It has possibly been the extent of the operations in the unofficial markets that has also had an effect in causing recent relaxation in exchange control.

In addition to the foregoing developments in recent months, the commercial treaty policy of several Latin American countries has continued along the lines which have been noted during the past two

or three years, through the negotiation of bilateral trade agreements with other American and with European nations. The latest of these treaties between American republics include those signed by Colombia and the United States, by Chile and Peru,³ and by Venezuela and Colombia;⁴ other agreements are pending. Furthermore, special agreements covering the loosening of foreign credits blocked by exchange control in Latin American countries have been negotiated with interests in European countries and the United States, particularly by Chile, Argentina, Uruguay, and Brazil, in addition to the commercial treaties of the usual type between the governments noted above.

The recent adoption of amendments to the tariff law of the United States, whereby the President is empowered to enter into reciprocal trade agreements with foreign countries, and raise or lower the level of tariffs by as much as 50 percent, will be of considerable interest to the nations of Latin America. It is expected that the coming months will witness the opening of negotiations between the United States and Latin American countries looking toward commercial treaties under the new law.

There follows a brief summary of current economic developments in a few of the Latin American Republics:

ARGENTINA

Recent months in Argentina have witnessed the inauguration of a broad governmental program of positive action looking toward relief from the effects of the recent years of depression. This program has included measures for the relief of debtors; improvement of the Government's financial position through the refunding, at lower interest rates, of a large part of the internal debt; relief to the important agricultural interests through the guarantee of a minimum price for producers of grains and dairy products; loosening of the constantly increasing weight of frozen foreign exchange hanging over the market, through the issuance of Government bonds and Treasury bills in foreign currencies to interests abroad in exchange for blocked funds awaiting transfer;⁵ the development of a program for the improvement of the international financial position of the country through such allocation of available exchange as would prevent a future accumulation of large frozen foreign balances; a plan of public works during the coming two years;⁶ and a program for the further relief of unemployment through land colonization.

³ See page 530.

⁴ See "Treaties and International Relations, Colombia-Venezuela", *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, June 1934, p. 451.

⁵ See "Release of Blocked Foreign Currencies in Argentina", *Ibid.* January 1934, pp. 65-66.

⁶ See "Argentine Public Works and Highway Program", *Ibid.* May 1934, pp. 381-382.

Though the total foreign trade of Argentina in 1933 was the lowest in value for the last eighteen years, amounting to 2,017,990,441 paper pesos (of which exports amounted to 1,120,841,512 and imports to 897,148,929 paper pesos), reports for the first few months of 1934 indicate a considerable improvement. Thus, in the first quarter of 1934, exports were valued at 100 million paper pesos more than in the corresponding period in 1933, and in the first four months of this year exports increased in value by more than 30 percent over the 1933 figures.

Government revenues during the first four months of 1934 show a slight increase as compared with the receipts during the same period in 1933, and the successful refunding of nearly all the internal debt at lower interest rates near the close of 1933, together with other financial operations by the Government, has placed the national Treasury in a relatively satisfactory position in recent months.

BRAZIL

Though the external financial position of Brazil remains difficult, the stimulation given to a number of domestic industries by the forced curtailment of imports has had a beneficial effect upon internal economic conditions during the past year or more. Thus industries which have had to compete against foreign goods in the past have found a strong demand for their products, this condition being particularly marked in the textile and shoe industries. Lately, however, there has been a recession in these lines of activities, as production has caught up with demand.

Brazilian exports, about 10 percent greater in value in 1933 than in the preceding year, have continued to increase sharply during the early months of the present year, in terms of domestic currency. While exports in the first quarter of 1933 were valued at 658 thousand contos of paper reis, in the corresponding period of the present year they had increased to 889 thousand contos. The increase has been due not only to the larger volume of exports, but also to the higher prices prevailing for coffee. A continuance of the present export movement will undoubtedly, by easing the foreign exchange situation, be of prime importance in improving the external position of Brazil.

A plan has been recently announced for the payment of the foreign debt of the federal, state, and municipal governments of Brazil, extending over a four-year period from April 1934 to March 1938. Under this plan the external obligations are divided into eight groups, the amount of payments to be made varying from full interest on certain obligations of the federal government, to no interest on various debts of certain states and municipalities, sinking-fund payments on all obligations remaining suspended.

CHILE

An interesting development in Chile during recent months has been the legislation for the important nitrate industry, adopted early in January 1934. While the organization known as the "Cosach", a combination of governmental and private interests, did not succeed as had been anticipated and was dissolved early in 1933, a year's negotiations were required to develop a plan acceptable to all interests. The new arrangement, however, provides for a nitrate and iodine sales corporation to which private interests will sell their production at cost, the corporation then acting in world markets as the sole selling organization. Of the proceeds from such sales, 75 percent is given to the producers, and 25 percent to the government.⁷

Though the strongly inflationary movement so marked in Chile during 1932 appeared to have been checked during 1933, early months of 1934 gave indications that the upward movement was being resumed. Wholesale prices, reflecting this, after moving downward in the last five months of the year from the record high points of May and June 1933, began to rise again in January and February of this year, and as of March 31, 1934, the balance sheet of the Banco Central de Chile showed that the circulating medium had risen to the highest point yet reached—922 million pesos.

An encouraging feature of the situation in Chile is the sharp increase noted during the last few months of 1933 and the early months of 1934 in the exports of nitrates and other products. Thus in the 11 months ending May 1934 over 1,000,000 tons of nitrates were exported, as compared with but 165,874 tons in the corresponding period in 1932-33.

Until Chilean exports increase in volume and value to more satisfactory levels, however, it appears that the international payments of the country cannot be balanced if all foreign obligations are to be met, and that exchange control must remain in effect. During 1933 the Chilean Government continued the policy of negotiating agreements with interests in foreign countries for the release of credits blocked by exchange control, in return for greater purchases of Chilean products by such foreign countries. Agreements of this character had been negotiated, up to the end of March 1934, with Germany, Austria, the Belgian-Luxemburg Customs Union, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Spain, France, Italy, and Sweden.

COLOMBIA

Though the value of Colombian exports increased slightly in 1933 as compared with those of the previous year—from 70 to 72

⁷ For detailed consideration of the Chilean Nitrate and Iodine Sales Corporation see "Chile Revamps the Nitrate Industry", *Ibid.* May 1934, pp. 334-342.

million pesos — the favorable trade surplus, due to the large increase in imports from 30 to 50 million pesos, was not sufficient to balance the international payments of the country. It was reported that at the close of 1933 there was an unfavorable balance in the payments of about 5,000,000 pesos. This situation also made necessary the suspension of all cash payments on the external obligations of the National Government during 1934. Large expenditures abroad by the Government for national defense were important in adversely affecting the balance of international payments, but it was anticipated that the arrangement in May of the present year looking toward an amicable settlement of the controversy with Peru would cause a sharp curtailment in such extraordinary expenditures, as the strain on Government finances and on the foreign exchange available to pay for ordinary imports would thus be relieved. In addition, rising coffee prices in the early months of the present year were expected to improve not only internal conditions in Colombia, but also to benefit to a considerable extent the external financial position of the country.

The increasing pressure of large amounts of foreign credits blocked in Colombia on account of exchange control, plus demands of exporting groups for a more favorable export rate for the peso, were in part responsible for action by the Government in the latter part of 1933 to relax exchange control regulations to the extent of permitting 85 percent of the available exchange to be negotiated freely.

MEXICO

Decreased unemployment, increased railroad traffic, and a gradual upward movement in wholesale prices and in the production of several important commodities, particularly minerals, are among the visible evidences of improved general economic conditions in Mexico as compared with 1933. Government finances also reflect such improvement, actual revenues in the last fiscal year increasing considerably over the returns for 1932, and estimated receipts for the current year being placed at 10 to 15 percent more than the revenues for 1933.

Increases in the value of Mexican exports became quite marked in the closing months of last year, and continued into the early months of 1934, being featured by greater exports of agricultural, and to some extent, of mining products. Exports and reexports of gold, however, accounted in part for the increased value of total exportations. Imports into Mexico have shown a tendency to decline in recent months from the levels to which they had risen at the close of 1933.

The dominant political party of Mexico brought forward during 1933 a project for the general economic and social development of the country known as the "Six-Year Plan", designed to affect every phase of national life. This plan, which is already being placed in

operation, changes radically the former relation of the government to private enterprise, aiming at the eventual socialization of a number of industries which are considered of public utility. In addition, the plan is strongly nationalistic in some respects, being based upon the idea that Mexico should, as far as is economically sound, become a self-sufficient nation, as long as other countries are pursuing nationalistic policies.⁸

PERU

The marked improvement in general economic conditions which occurred in 1933 in Peru extended into the first few months of 1934, the announcement of the arrangement looking toward an amicable settlement of the dispute with Colombia further strengthening the general business outlook.

A sharp upturn in foreign trade played a substantial part in the general improvement, greater volume of shipments combining with higher prices to increase the value of exports from 179 million soles in 1932 to 257 million in 1933. The favorable trade balance amounted to 154 million soles in 1933, as compared with 106 million in 1932. The improved foreign-trade situation continued into 1934, imports more than doubling in comparison with the first two months of the previous year, and exports increasing by one-third.

The index of wholesale prices in Peru, which had been gradually declining for the past several years, moved upward during the latter part of 1933 and early in 1934, and other indices reveal the marked improvement in general conditions—check clearings were considerably higher, the number and value of bills protested declined, and stock and bond quotations increased sharply. Government finances, reflecting the general situation, also registered an improvement, particularly on account of the increase in foreign trade.

⁸ For detailed consideration of the "Six-Year Plan", see *Ibid.* April 1934, pp. 295-303.



HOW HATS ARE MADE IN ECUADOR



Courtesy of the Ecuadorian Panama Hat Co., Inc.

THE BEGINNINGS OF A "PANAMA" HAT.

The manufacture of that very popular straw hat the "Panama" is an important industry—not of the country whose name it bears, but of Ecuador. Before the days of the Panama Canal these hats found their way into commerce via the isthmus. Upper: The *Carludovica Palmata* is the most important of several species of plants producing fiber from which Panama hats are woven. It grows wild in the forestal coast regions of Ecuador and in the warmer humid areas of Colombia and Peru, reaching a height of 6 to 10 feet. Lower: In the preparation of the "toquilla" straw, the young palm leaves are cut as they are about to open, the outer filament is removed and the fibers split. After immersions in boiling water, to which lemon is sometimes added, the straw is hung in the shade to dry, and next day bleached in the sun.

HOW HATS ARE MADE IN ECUADOR



WEAVING PANAMA HATS.

The straw, which has been split into fibers of the desired thinness, is carefully selected for length and color. Beginning at the center of the crown, the hats are woven over wooden blocks. After the top of the crown is completed, a heavy block or stone is placed on it to hold the hat in place. Work is usually confined to four or five early morning hours while the atmosphere is humid. As dampness is essential, the weavers' fingers are always kept wet. Ordinary hats take about 2 weeks in the making, while those of the highest grade require as long as 6 months.



Courtesy of the Ecuadorian Panama Hat Co., Inc.

HOW HATS ARE MADE IN ECUADOR



Courtesy of the Ecuadorian Panama Hat Co., Inc.

A HAT FACTORY AT CUENCA, ECUADOR.

Cuenca, in the highlands, has developed into a leading hat manufacturing center; the industry is said to have been started here years ago as an occupation for prison inmates. Upper: The plaiting completed, the brims are trimmed and edged and the straw ends fastened invisibly. Lower: As the final operation, the hats are washed in cold water, bleached in the sun and polished with dry sulphur.

HOW HATS ARE MADE IN ECUADOR



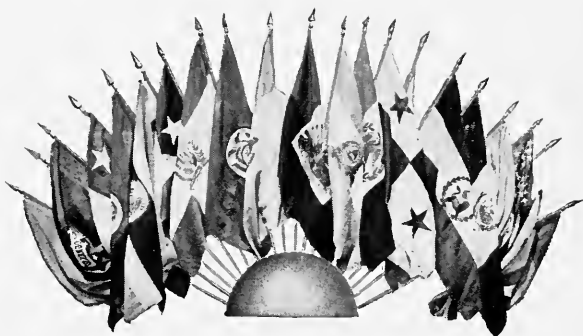
Courtesy of Carlos Manuel Noboa.



Courtesy of the Ecuadorian Panama Hat Co., Inc.

THE HAT INDUSTRY.

Ranking third in value among Ecuador's exports, the total shipments of hats in a recent year reached a value of \$1,680,532; nearly 70 percent went to the United States. Upper: The hats are carefully examined and graded before packing. Lower: This consignment is ready to be transported from Cuenca to the coast by burro.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Bibliographic conference.—The First Inter-American Bibliographic Conference has been called by the Government of Cuba to assemble in Habana on November 5, 1934. This conference was originally proposed by a resolution of the Sixth International Conference of American States, held in that capital in 1928, and again suggested by a resolution of the Seventh Conference, which met at Montevideo in 1933.

Copyright convention.—Nicaragua recently gave notice of its ratification of the convention revising the Buenos Aires Convention of 1910 on Literary and Artistic Copyright, signed at Habana during the Sixth International Conference of American States. The number of ratifying countries has thus been increased to four, the other three being Panama, Guatemala, and Costa Rica.

Accessions.—The following list has been compiled from books received during the past month:

Actas y trabajos científicos del XXVº Congreso internacional de americanistas (La Plata, 1932). . . . Buenos Aires, Imprenta y casa editora "Coni", 1934. 2 v. illus. 28 cm. Contents.—Tomo I, Actas y resoluciones, Tema oficial, Antropología, Etnografía. Tomo II, Arqueología, Lingüística, Historia, Varios. [A compilation of the papers presented to the last Congress of Americanists, made by the Universidad nacional de La Plata.]

Evolución del Panamericanismo; el credo de Wilson y el panamericanismo, por Enrique Gil. . . . Buenos Aires, Librería y casa editora de Jesús Menéndez, 1933. 490 p. 24 cm. Contents.—1ª parte, Revista histórica de la evolución del panamericanismo; 2ª parte, Política interamericana de los Estados Unidos; 3ª parte, El credo de Wilson, contenido en los Catorce Postulados, representa en esencia el espíritu del panamericanismo; 4ª parte, La civilización naciente será fruto de la conjunción espiritual de las razas latina y anglosajona en América. [An interesting study of the Pan American idea. Dr. Gil was a representative of Argentina at the Second Pan American Scientific Congress in Washington, in 1915. He is a member of the executive board of the International Law Associa-

tion (Argentine branch), of the American Institute of International Law and of the Center of Studies of International Public Law of the National University of Buenos Aires.]

Represión de la especulación y trusts; estudio de la ley 11210 con sus antecedentes doctrinarios y legislativos, jurisprudencia argentina y americana, por los alumnos del seminario de economía del curso de 1926 bajo la dirección del Profesor Dr. Enrique Gil. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos de la Penitenciaría nacional, 1929. 479 p. 26 cm. (Universidad nacional de La Plata. Facultad de ciencias jurídicas y sociales. Seminario de investigaciones científicas.)

Sarmiento. Otros discursos. [Por] Rafael Alberto Palomeque. La Plata, 1933. 74 p. 20 cm. [A collection of speeches delivered by the author during 1933 on various subjects, including eulogies of Sarmiento, Rivadavia, Dardo Rocha, and San Martín.]

Ao Brasil (informações para viajantes) [organizado pelo] Ministerio do trabalho, industria e comercio] Rio de Janeiro. [Oficinas gráficas Almanak Laemmert.] 1933. 120 p. plates. 23 cm. [A recent handbook for the tourist and colonist in Brazil, valuable for the economic data found therein as well as for the appendix of laws and instructions for foreigners.]

Llampo brujo; la epopeya de los buscadores del oro y de la plata [por] Sady Zañartu. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1933. 250 p. 19 cm. [A new novel having the Chilean mines as setting.]

El Lobo; drama en tres actos [por] Eugenio Orrego Vicuña. [Santiago.] Nascimento, 1933. 80 p. 19 cm. [A recent play from the pen of a well-known Chilean dramatist.]

La constitución de 1833; ensayo sobre nuestra historia constitucional de un siglo . . . [y] Estudios chilenos [por] Antonio Huneeus Gana. Santiago, Editorial Splendid. [1933.] 203 p. 24 cm. [This volume includes an interesting constitutional study and various essays on Chilean political and economic events.]

José Miguel Carrera; la rebelión armada en América [por] Augusto Iglesias. . . . Santiago de Chile [Editorial Ercilla] 1934. 314 p. 23 cm. (Biblioteca Ercilla. vol. xxi.) [This biography won first prize in the literary contest for historical biographies established by *La Nación* of Santiago in 1930 and 1931. The author has added a 9-page bibliography.]

Regidores de Bogotá, 1539 a 1933 [por] Enrique Ortega Ricaurte. . . . [Bogotá] Imprenta municipal, 1933. 86 p. plates (ports.) 22½ cm. Contents.—Ciudadanos que han desempeñado el cargo de regidores de Bogotá y de secretarios del Consejo municipal de esta capital; Addenda: Regidores de Bogotá. [The author lists alphabetically the government officials of Bogotá with the dates that they held office. There are 1,191 names in the first part and 139 names in the "Addenda". Bio-bibliographical material and portraits are given for many.]

Trabajos jurídicos de Luis F. Latorre U. como abogado consultor de la Presidencia de la República durante la administración del excelentísimo señor Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera, 1930-34: Tomo I. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1934. 240 p. 25 cm. [Addresses on various legal topics made during recent years.]

Libro primero [y segundo] de Cabildos de Quito, descifrado por José Rumazo González. . . . Quito. [Cándido Briz Sánchez, impresor.] 1934. 2 v. in 4. plates, facsim. 28½ cm. (Publicaciones del Archivo municipal.) [These first two books of the municipal archives comprise the royal decrees establishing the city, from 1529 to 1533, and the proceedings of the government of Quito from 1534 to 1551. The documents are the earliest Spanish American records. They are now published with notes by Señor Rumazo González, on the occasion of the four-hundredth anniversary of the founding of Quito and will be of great value to historians. This material has been available heretofore only in the manuscript originals.]

Historia general de las Indias occidentales, y particular de la gobernación de Chiapa y Guatemala . . . por el Fray Antonio de Remesal. . . . Tomo II. Segunda edición. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional.] 1932. 620 p. 26 cm. (Biblioteca "Goathemala" de la Sociedad de geografía e historia. volumen V.) [The second volume of the reprint of this famous three-hundred-year old history.]

Historia de la conquista de la provincia de el Itzá; reducción, y progresos de la de el Lacandón, y otras naciones de indios bárbaros, de las mediaciones de el reyno de Guatemala, a las provincias de Yucatán, en la América septentrional, escribela Don Juan de Villagutierre Soto-Mayor. . . . Segunda edición. . . . Guatemala, [Topografía nacional]. 1933. 516 p. 26 cm. (Biblioteca "Goathemala" de la Sociedad de geografía e historia. volumen IX. [A complete, descriptive relation of the conquest of the Itzá territory in the years 1525 to 1699, written at the end of the seventeenth century.]

Port-au-Prince et quelques autres villes d'Haïti. Port-au-Prince, Imprimerie de l'état, 1934. 111 p. illus., plates, ports. 26½ cm. [A description of Port-au-Prince and other Haitian cities and of social and cultural life, published by the Communal Administration of Port-au-Prince.]

El General Domingo Vásquez y su tiempo; ensayo histórico, por el profesor Gustavo A. Castañeda S. . . . Tegucigalpa, [Imprenta Calderón.] 1934. 119 p. 18½ cm. [A small but worthwhile biography of General Vásquez and history of Central America in the latter part of the nineteenth century.]

Interpretaciones, reformas por decretos legislativos y autos acordados por la honorable Corte Suprema, a leyes de Honduras [por] Juan Ramón Girón Escobar. . . . Tegucigalpa, Imprenta "La Democracia", 1933. 384 p. 23 cm. [A collection of Supreme Court decisions.]

Zapatos viejos [por] Arturo Mejía Nieto. Buenos Aires, J. Samet, editor. [1930.] 160 p. 19 cm. [This is the second volume of short stories about Central America by this Honduran author.]

Páginas rojas (cuentos regionales) [por] Alvaro J. Cerrato. . . . Tegucigalpa, Talleres tipográficos nacionales, 1933. 128 p. 21 cm. [A collection of short stories.]

La crisis del talón de oro [por] el Lic. José Luis Requena. Segunda edición. México, Editorial "Fenix", 1933. 290 p. 24 cm. [The world's currency problems since 1929 are fully discussed in this work of Señor Requena's. It has also been published in English.]

Hornacinas; stories of niches and corners of Mexico City. Text and illustrations by Dorothy N. Stewart. [México, Editorial "Cultura", 1933] 162 p. plates, maps. 31 cm. [An attractive book of descriptions and stories, with hand-lithographs by the author.]

The discovery of the Amazon according to the account of Friar Gaspar de Carvajal and other documents, as published with an introduction by José Toribio Medina. Translated from the Spanish by Bertram T. Lee. Edited by H. C. Heaton. . . . New York, American Geographical Society, 1934. 467 p. 26 cm. (American Geographical Society. Special publication no. 17.) [An invaluable contribution to the history of the Amazon, now translated into English for the first time.]

Latin American music, past and present, by Eleanor Hague. Santa Ana, California, The Fine arts press, 1934. 98 p. col. front., plates. 25½ cm. [The plates, list of musicians and 8-page bibliography are additions which help to make this book an excellent aid in the study of Latin American music.]

New magazines.—The following magazines are new or have been received in the library for the first time:

Pediatria e puericultura; órgão da Sociedade de pediatria da Bahia e da Liga bahiana contra a mortalidade infantil. Bahia, 1931. Ano 1, no. 2, dezembro 1931. p. [85]–168. 23x16 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Martagão Gesteira. Address: Banco dos Ingleses, no. 2, Bahia, Brasil.

Arquivos do Instituto de biologia vegetal. Rio de Janeiro, 1934. Vol. I, no. 1, janeiro, 1934. 65 p. illus., plates. 27x19 cm. Irregular. Editor: A. da Costa Lima. Address: Instituto de biologia vegetal, Jardim botânico, Rio de Janeiro, Brasil. [“Os Arquivos substituem as publicações, *Arquivos do Jardim Botânico do Rio de Janeiro* e *Boletim do Instituto biológico de defesa agrícola*, das duas instituições de cuja fusão resultou este Instituto.”—PREF.]

Revista do professor; órgão do Centro do professorado paulista. São Paulo, 1934. No. 1, ano 1, março de 1934. 36 p. illus. 27x18½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Sud Mennucci. Address: Centro do professorado paulista, São Paulo, Brasil.

Acción social; revista mensual de la Caja de seguro obligatorio. Santiago, 1934. Año III, no. 25, abril de 1934. 84 p. 26x19 cm. Address: Morandé esq. de Moneda, Casilla 7–D, Santiago de Chile.

Turismo austral; revista mensual pro fomento del turismo en la zona austral de Chile. Valdivia, 1933. Año 1, no. 4, diciembre de 1933. 74 p. illus., tables. 26½x18½ cm. Editor: Charles O'Compley. Address: Cas. 70, Valdivia, Chile.

Ilustración nariñense. Pasto, 1934. Série v, no. 53, marzo, 1934. [44] p. illus., ports. 34x24 cm. Monthly. Editor: Rafael Delgado Ch. Address: Pasto, Colombia.

El Exportador cubano; revista mensual ilustrada, editada en español e inglés, [de] agricultura, industria y comercio. Habana, 1934. Año 1, no. 3, mayo de 1934. 18 p. 30x21 cm. Editor: J. Enrique Bravo de Messa. Address: Marques González, no. 26, Habana, Cuba.

Carteles. La Habana, 1934. Vol. XXI, no. 14, abril 22, 1934. 66 p. illus., ports. 32x24½ cm. Weekly. Editor: Alfredo T. Quílez. Address: Sindicato de artes gráficas, Ave. Menocal y Peñalver, La Habana, Cuba.

Boletín de fomento; órgano oficial de la Secretaría. Guatemala, 1934. Epoca IV, no. 1, enero de 1934. 26 p. 26x18 cm. Bimonthly. Address: Ministerio de fomento, Guatemala, Guatemala.

Comercio exterior de México; órgano del Departamento de comercio exterior de la Secretaría de la economía nacional. México, 1934. Volumen II, no. 4, abril de 1934. 62 p. tables. 28x21½ cm. Monthly. Address: Filomeno Mata 8, México, D.F., México.

Foreign trade of Mexico. Washington, D.C., 1934. Vol. 1, no. 2, May 10, 1934. [15] p. maps. 28x21½ cm. Monthly. Editor: F. Jaime Gaxiola, Mexican commercial attaché. Address: 514 Woodward Bldg., Washington, D.C.

Boletín bibliográfico de “Jurisprudencia” (colección Abadie-Santos). Montevideo [1933?] no. 76–77. 78 p. 24x17 cm. Editor: Dr. A. R. Abadie-Santos. Address: Bulevar Artigas, 958, Montevideo.

PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

ANTIWAR TREATY OF CONCILIATION AND NONAGGRESSION

On the afternoon of April 27, 1934, adherences to the Argentine Antiwar Pact were deposited with the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina by plenipotentiaries of Bolivia, Colombia, Cuba, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, the United States, and Venezuela. The adherence of Costa Rica, El Salvador, and Peru was transmitted by cablegram or note while that of Ecuador was presented by the Brazilian Ambassador, delegate *ad hoc* of the Ecuadorean Government. Of the 21 republics members of the Pan American Union, only the Dominican Republic has not yet expressed itself in favor of the pact.

The treaty was originally signed on October 10, 1933, in Rio de Janeiro, during the visit of President Justo of Argentina to Brazil. The signatories on that occasion were, besides the two nations just mentioned, Chile, Mexico, Paraguay, and Uruguay.

The adherence presented by the Ambassador of the United States at Buenos Aires was conditioned upon the Senate's subsequent advice and consent, which President Roosevelt had requested in submitting it to that body on April 23.

A translation of the draft of the treaty, which was substantially the same as the final text, was published in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for April 1933.

TWO CHILEAN-PERUVIAN TREATIES SIGNED

Treaty of Settlement.—The Governments of Chile and Peru, in order to liquidate certain obligations arising from the treaty and supplementary protocol for the settlement of the dispute regarding Tacna and Arica ¹ signed a Treaty in Lima on March 17, 1934, the principal provisions of which are as follows:

1. In lieu of the quay, customs office, and railway terminal station which the Government of Chile was to construct in Arica for the use of Peru it will deliver Chilean materials up to the value of 2,500,000 pesos which the Government of Peru may use in Tacna or elsewhere for public works.

¹ Signed at Lima, June 3, 1929. League of Nations, *Treaty Series*. Vol. 94, pp. 402-411.

2. The claims of Chileans against the Government of Peru and those of Peruvians against the Government of Chile are to be arbitrated by the Supreme Court of the country against which the claim is brought.

3. Certain Chilean property in Tacna is exchanged for Peruvian property in Arica. The Government of Chile assumes the loan for street paving in Tacna and the Peruvian Government the debt for public works constructed by it in Arica.

4. The facilities for the free transit of persons, goods, and arms through the port of Arica granted to Peru by the Tacna-Arica Pacts are to be maintained and the Convention on the Transit of Merchandise and Baggage between Tacna and Arica signed on December 31, 1930, is to remain effective.

5. The erection of the monument on the Morro of Arica to commemorate the consolidation of friendly relations between the two countries is postponed until 1935.

Treaty of commerce.—The new commercial treaty between Chile and Peru signed at Lima on March 17, 1934, by Dr. Solón Polo, Minister of Foreign Affairs, on behalf of the Peruvian Government, and Señor Manuel Rivas Vicuña, Chilean Ambassador, on behalf of his Government, contains a number of reciprocal customs concessions intended to increase and facilitate commercial intercourse between the two countries. Special treatment, for example, is to be accorded in Chile to Peruvian sugar in exchange for similar favors granted to Chilean wheat in Peru. Both of these commodities will be free from any import restrictions up to 70 percent of the total consumption in the importing country and no favors to third countries will be granted which may render difficult the sale of these products up to that amount. Half of the 70-percent quota on Chilean wheat will be admitted duty free into Peru. Peruvian cotton will be admitted free of duty in Chile up to 100,000 kilos annually. In exchange Peru will not impose import duties on Chilean condensed and evaporated milk up to 1,000 tons a year. Should Chile impose a duty on cotton yarn, imports of this commodity from Peru will be admitted free up to 500,000 kilos net annually. As long as the treaty is in effect Chile guarantees not to impose any surtax on Peruvian cotton-seed oil. Natural fertilizers, coal, lumber, fruits, and vegetables from either of the two countries are to be in the free list of both.

Chilean sulphur and pedigreed livestock, when its importation is authorized by the Peruvian Government, will be exempt from import duties. In addition, Peruvian import duties on a long list of Chilean products are reduced 50 percent. Most of the products which form part of the Chilean-Peruvian interchange are granted-most-favored-nation treatment. The products of each country are to be accorded national treatment in the other with respect to internal legislation.

Free trade between Tacna and Arica is maintained substantially as at present.

Preference will be given to the merchant marine of one or the other party when, for lack of national tonnage, coastwise trade privileges are extended to foreign nations.

A mixed commission of six members divided into two local committees is established by the treaty and charged with its application and the promotion of trade between the two countries. The treaty will remain in force for two years and a half and may be extended for a further 6 months. Pending its negotiation a *modus vivendi* originally signed in 1930 has been in effect between the two countries.—G. A. S.

CUBAN LEGISLATION ON THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN BEFORE AND AFTER CHILDBIRTH

The First International Labor Conference, which met in Washington in 1919, approved a convention on the employment of women before and after childbirth. The ratification of this convention by the Cuban Government was registered with the League of Nations on August 6, 1928. To assure nation-wide compliance with the terms of the convention, and to supplement existing legislation, the present administration issued Decree-Law No. 152, approved by the Council of Secretaries and signed by the President of the Republic on April 18, 1934.

This law prohibits the employment of women for 6 weeks after childbirth and provides for an absence of 6 weeks before the estimated date of birth, as attested by a medical certificate. During that absence every such employee shall receive a pension sufficient for the maintenance of herself and her child and also have the additional right to be attended by a physician or a licensed midwife at the expense of the State, the Province, or the city, as the case may be. The pension, which must not be less than the woman's wages, will be paid from an insurance fund to which compulsory contributions shall be made by the Government, employers, and all women workers. While receiving this financial aid, the beneficiary must not accept any remunerative work. If the mother should die, the pension shall be continued to the person caring for the child. After the mother has returned to work, she shall be allowed two extra half-hour periods during working hours to nurse the child until it is weaned. No deduction may be made from her wages for time so spent.

No woman may be dismissed for pregnancy or for any illness connected therewith which affects her work. Nor may a pregnant woman be dismissed except for justifiable cause, in which category lessened efficiency due to her condition may not be included. Such employees

shall not be given work which exceeds their strength, which requires them to stand an undue length of time, which might produce nervous shock, or which might in any way affect the unborn child.

Every commercial business or industrial enterprise, public or private, must provide in every building in which 50 or more women work, a room to be used during working hours as a day nursery for children under 2 years of age of the women employees. Such rooms must comply with the regulations and be subject to the inspection of the board of health.

The word *woman* as defined in the law applies without regard to age, nationality, or civil status, and the term *child* to any infant, legitimate or illegitimate.

The decree-law, which also defines the terms industrial enterprise and commercial business and provides penalties for infractions, went into effect on June 19, 1934, 60 days after its publication in the *Gaceta Oficial*.—B. N.

BUREAU OF STATISTICS ESTABLISHED IN URUGUAY

A bureau of statistics and financial research to be known as the *Dirección de Estadigrafía e Investigaciones Financieras* was recently established by the Uruguayan Government to make a systematic investigation of all factors entering into national finances and to study their interdependence. It will not only be a consultative and information bureau on financial matters but will also have supervisory and regulatory functions. The law provides that the Bureau shall share in the supervision of Government expenditures and carry out research whose results will serve as a basis for the preparation of budgets and financial estimates. The Bureau is also charged with establishing an "efficiency service" which is to study the organization of the Government offices in order to improve their operation and coordinate their reports.

The statistician in chief, who will be in charge of the Bureau, will include among his duties the organization of a foreign information service; for this purpose he will supply material to diplomatic and consular officials.

SANITARY CAMPAIGNS IN ECUADOR

A legislative decree signed by the acting President of Ecuador on November 1, 1933, authorized sanitary campaigns to be undertaken against malaria, ankylostomiasis, dysentery, typhus fever, and *pian*, this work to be carried on along the coast and wherever in the interior the presence of such diseases makes it advisable. The campaigns will be under the direction of the Sanitary Bureaus of the respective

zones, and both cities and rural districts will be included, although preference will be given to the latter. Cities where campaigns are started will contribute on a fixed scale, according to population, to the expenses of organization, personnel, and supplies. Proprietors of estates where a campaign is conducted must offer facilities and aid to the Sanitary Commissions. Medical students in all universities in the Republic must, as a part of their university requirements, spend their last two vacations in making practical studies on the treatment and epidemiology of one or more of the diseases; for this purpose they will be assigned by the National Sanitary Bureau to a local technical staff. Such students are to be paid a salary and traveling expenses. The owners, administrators, or lessees of estates where malaria is prevalent must build dormitories with wire screens and other hygienic features.

Regulations for the execution of this decree were issued by the Acting President on January 11 of this year. The staff in charge of the campaigns will be composed of the Directors of Sanitation in each zone, who are to be the chairmen of their respective committees, the members of the Provincial Board of Health, the municipal physicians who will be in charge of the campaigns, and any technical and administrative employees whom the Director of Sanitation may consider necessary.

Since the diseases to be included in the campaigns are most prevalent in rural districts, the work will begin there, and preferential attention will be given to cleaning them up. The cooperation of the medical students in the campaigns will be arranged by the Ministry of Public Education and the University Councils of the three universities.

In the same issue of the *Registro Oficial* (January 18, 1934), regulations were issued by the Comptroller General of the Republic for the collection and administration of the funds set aside for these campaigns.

AVIATION IN BRAZIL

Organized by the Aero Club of São Paulo, the First Brazilian National Aeronautical Congress met from April 15-22, 1934, to discuss a comprehensive program including the major problems confronting commercial, civil, military, and naval aviation in Brazil. On the day on which the congress was inaugurated, the Viação Aérea São Paulo (Vasp) opened to traffic its first two lines: São Paulo-Riberão Preto-Uberaba (280 miles) and São Paulo-São Carlos-Rio Preto (261 miles). To further the aims of the congress the Federal Interventor of São Paulo, Dr. Armando de Salles Oliveira, issued a decree exempting aviation enterprises and schools from the payment of state and

municipal taxes, a concession which had already been granted by the States of Amazonas, Pará, and Rio Grande do Sul. Two native sons of São Paulo, Alberto Santos Dumont, a world pioneer in aviation, and Father Bartholomeu de Gusmão, who invented a flying machine in 1709, were paid homage by the congress. A tablet to the memory of Santos Dumont was unveiled in the Post Office Regional Bureau, and a resolution adopted requesting the national and State governments to take measures for the repatriation of the remains of Father Gusmão, which have reposed in Toledo, Spain, for the last 210 years. The closing day of the congress, "Air Day" was marred by the tragic death of Captain Djalma Petit, who had come to São Paulo in command of a squadron of navy planes to participate in the celebration. The Second National Aeronautical Congress will be held on July 12, 1935, the 34th anniversary of the demonstration of the practicability of dirigible aircraft.

A contract between the Government of Brazil and the Condor Syndicate for the establishment of an airplane service between São Paulo and Cuiabá, a distance of 1,159 miles, was signed on March 24, 1934. Leaving São Paulo the proposed line follows the railroad to Campo Grande, stopping at Piracicaba, Baurú, Lins, Penapólis, Araçatuba, and Três Lagoas, continues to Aquidaua, and then follows the national telegraph lines to Corumbá, on the bank of the Paraguay River, only 11 miles from Puerto Suárez, Bolivia. At Corumbá a change is made to hydroplanes, and the route follows the Paraguay, São Lourenço, and Cuiabá Rivers, stopping at Pôrto Joffre before reaching the terminus. The contract calls for one round trip weekly, the Government to pay the company 3 milreis for every kilometer flown (approximately 41 cents per mile). The section of the line from Campo Grande to Cuiabá, 537 miles, had already been established under a similar subsidy from the State of Matto Grosso but has now been taken over by the Federal Government.

A similar contract with Panair do Brasil, a subsidiary of Pan American Airways, has been authorized for the establishment of a weekly passenger, mail, and freight service between Belém (Pará) at the mouth of the Amazon and Manaus, capital of the State of Amazonas, about 1,000 miles inland. Stops will be made at Bréves, Gurapá, Prainha, Santarém, Óbidos, Parintins, and Itacoatiara. The total length of the line is estimated at 932 miles; the company will receive 6 milreis per kilometer, or approximately 82 cents for every mile flown during the weekly round trip. Both contracts will run for 3 years, subject to renewal.

A contract for the construction of a landing field for the airport to be erected at Rio de Janeiro has been signed by the Brazilian Government and the Companhia Nacional de Construções Cíveis e Hidráulicas. It calls for the construction of a sea wall at Ponta

Calabouço about 4,900 feet long and the filling of the space between the wall and the shore with over 2,000,000 cubic yards of sand dredged from Rio de Janeiro Bay. The work is to be finished within 18 months at an estimated cost of about 10,000 contos de reis (approximately \$850,000).

The Minister of Communications has been authorized by Dr. Getulio Vargas, head of the Provisional Government of Brazil, to sign a contract with the Luftschiffbau Zeppelin for the establishment of a regular dirigible service between Brazil and Europe. The dirigibles are to stop at Recife (Pernambuco) and Rio de Janeiro and make at least 20 trips each year. To enable the company to establish this service, the Government will appropriate 11,207 contos de reis (about \$952,600) for the construction of an airport for dirigibles at Santa Cruz, in the environs of Rio de Janeiro. The project includes the construction of a hangar and a movable landing mast, the installation of equipment for the production of gas, the erection of storage tanks, and the grading, fencing, etc., of the field, which will have an area of at least 247 acres. The construction of the airport will be in charge of the Zeppelin company, which will begin work within 60 days from a date to be set by the Government after it has finished a road leading to the field and has extended water pipes and power lines to it. The work is to be completed within 15 months from that date. Upon its completion the airport is to be leased to the company, which will manage it under the supervision of the Department of Civil Aeronautics for a period of 30 years. The company is to pay the Government a fixed annual rental fee of 80 contos de reis (\$6,800), and in addition 16 contos (\$1,360) per trip for a minimum of 20 trips a year until the original amount invested by the Government is paid for. Upon payment of the regular fees any dirigible, regardless of ownership or nationality, is to be allowed to use the airport.

The development of airways in Brazil has been rapid. The following table, compiled by the Department of Civil Aeronautics of the Ministry of Communications and Public Works, shows the increasing use of airplane services during the last 6 years:

Commercial air traffic in Brazil, 1928-33

	1928	1929	1930	1931	1932	1933
Number of companies.....	3	4	4	4	4	5
Length of lines in operation (miles).....	4,098	4,502	9,633	10,174	11,405	12,468
Aircraft in service.....	57	51	62	66	55	54
Pilots in service.....	24	23	39	27	34	40
Number of flights.....	1,178	1,476	1,767	1,746	1,683	2,599
Miles flown.....	566,912	708,442	1,061,286	1,152,452	1,367,291	1,519,158
Duration of flights (hours).....	6,615	8,212	12,013	12,097	14,187	15,341
Passengers carried.....	2,504	3,651	4,667	5,102	8,894	12,750
Mail (pounds).....	21,358	53,023	70,428	105,619	150,371	165,472
Baggage (pounds).....	44,663	65,294	52,611	102,775	224,616	319,836
Freight (pounds).....	4,213	17,147	21,184	48,306	286,323	248,582

NEW NATIONAL ACADEMIES IN COLOMBIA

On November 18, 1933, President Olaya Herrera signed Law No. 34, by which the Colombian Academies of Mathematics and Physical and Natural Sciences, a correspondent of the Spanish Academy with the same purpose, and of Fine Arts, a correspondent of the Academy of San Fernando of Madrid, were authorized as consultative bodies to the Government. The former, it was provided, should cooperate with the Government in the establishment and organization of the Museum of Natural Sciences, the Botanical Garden, and the Zoological Park, all in Bogotá, and study and propose to the Government the form in which it could participate in the publication of the works of José Celestino Mutis now in the Library of the Botanical Garden of Madrid (see BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for May 1932 and March 1933). The latter was charged with making an inventory of the historical and artistic monuments of the nation and caring for the public monuments and the natural beauties of the country.

On February 28, 1934, the President issued a decree officially establishing the Colombian Academy of Mathematics and Physical and Natural Sciences. In addition to the functions attributed to it by Law No. 34, 1933, it will advise the Government as to the organization and promotion of the study of those sciences in official educational institutions and among the working classes, publish a quarterly bulletin, and establish annual prizes for the best works presented on mathematics and the physical and natural sciences in competitions sponsored by the Academy with the approval of the Ministry of Education. Until provided with its own building, the Academy will have its headquarters in rooms furnished by the National Astronomical Observatory.

A third consultative body, the Academy of Education, has also been established recently. It was created by Decree No. 1937 of November 24, 1933, was organized shortly thereafter, and held its inaugural session on December 11—the centenary of the birth of Dr. Dámaso Zapata, an outstanding educator of Colombia. Its constitution was officially approved by Decree No. 644 of March 27, 1934.

The Government appointed the following academicians, to whom was entrusted the task of organizing the institution: Mgr. J. V. Castro Silva, Daniel Samper Ortega, R. P. Félix Restrepo, Leopoldo Borda Roldán, Dr. Ramón Zapata, Agustín Nieto Caballero, Martín Restrepo Mejía, Tomás Rueda Vargas, Dr. José Joaquín Casas, Luis Tomás Fallon, José Miguel Rosales, Dr. Manuel J. Huertas G., Dr. Rafael Bernal Jiménez, Dr. Luis López de Mesa, and Dr. Víctor

E. Caro. This group was also empowered to elect other academicians to a total of 28. At the first meeting of the group Dr. José Joaquín Casas was elected president, Dr. Manuel J. Huertas G. (who as Minister of Education had sponsored the Academy) life secretary, and Dr. Ramón Zapata assistant secretary.

The constitution approved on March 27 states the purpose of the academy to be the cultivation of the science of education and the other sciences closely connected with it, such as school law, medicine, psychology, and the social sciences. It will function in five sections: Child welfare; psychology and vocational guidance; school legislation and administration; cultural extension; and research. The officers shall be a president, two vice-presidents, an assistant secretary, and a treasurer, all elected annually, and a life secretary. Each section will have its own chairman and secretary. The academy will hold regular meetings once every 2 weeks, and the individual sections will meet when called by their respective chairmen.

In addition to the regular members of the Academy, all of whom must be professional educators or outstanding in one or more of the sciences named, there will be honorary members and national and foreign corresponding members.



THE TEACHING OF PORTUGUESE IN ARGENTINE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The National Council of Education in Buenos Aires voted in April 1934 to include Portuguese among the subjects taught in the secondary schools of Argentina. The adoption of this measure was largely due to the efforts of the Argentine Ambassador to Brazil, Dr. Ramón J. Cárcano.

In an editorial published on April 14, *La Nación* of Buenos Aires said: "This is a splendid decision, because it is important to add to the established curriculum another cultural subject, useful both in practical affairs and in enriching the spirit, and because, too, it expresses a genuinely American sentiment. Moreover it shows a desire, a necessity for communication between nations which—as in the case of Brazil and Portugal—speak a language different from ours and whose ways of expressing themselves interest and attract us. . . . The fact that many Argentines will know Portuguese, that they will learn it in our schools, will be a distinct advantage in facilitating relations between the two countries, nations destined to have more and closer relations with each other both because of their economic ties and because of their deep and increasing cultural rapprochement.

Although it is easy for the man of Spanish speech to get along in a Brazilian environment—as is true for the Brazilian in Argentine surroundings—a knowledge of the language will enable him to familiarize himself with its abundant literature, with its cultural wealth, with the finer shades of its customs. Since the language is easy for the Spanish-American because of its close similarity with his own, the school children will study it without the effort required for exotic languages or those fundamentally different in structure, and they will study it, furthermore, with sympathy—with the same sympathy which brought the project about.”

LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY AND LITERARY NEWS

Guatemalan Government Printing Office.—The fortieth anniversary of the establishment of the *Tipografía Nacional* (Government Printing Office) of Guatemala occurred in the early part of this year. It was in 1892 that the Government, under the presidency of General José María Reyna Barrios, acquired the printing house “El Modelo.” Two years later the print shop was transferred to government-owned property and the present name given it. The building was destroyed in the earthquakes of 1917–18, but with the installation of modern equipment in the handsome building which now houses the *Tipografía Nacional* the institution entered upon a new and fruitful era. The building is an impressive structure fitted with complete printing facilities, including a bindery and a photographic and cinematic department. The exterior of the building is decorated with 17 busts of printers famous in colonial or republican times. The *Tipografía Nacional* publishes works on various scientific, historic, cultural, and other topics as well as all official material.

In connection with its anniversary the *Tipografía Nacional* has opened a contest for the best book, on one of two topics: “Influence of the Government Printing Office on the cultural development of Guatemala,” or “The cultural development of Guatemala, from 1821 to 1933.”—THE LIBRARIAN, Columbus Memorial Library.

NECROLOGY

DR. ÁNGEL GALLARDO.—The rector (president) of the National University of Argentina, Dr. Ángel Gallardo, died in Buenos Aires on May 13, in his 67th year. Dr. Gallardo, one of the foremost scientists of Argentina, was noted both in his native country and abroad as a zoologist. He had taught zoology at the university and in the medical school of Buenos Aires before his appointment, in 1911, as director of the National Museum of Natural History. He represented his country at scientific congresses and on other occasions in Europe and America, and was a corresponding member of scientific societies in England, France, Chile, Mexico, and the United States. He was a prolific writer, and many of his 170 books and pamphlets are considered standard works on their subject.

Dr. Gallardo had also distinguished himself as a statesman and diplomat, having been Minister of Foreign Affairs and Argentine Ambassador to Rome.

DR. JUAN RAMÓN URIARTE.—On April 12, 1934, the Minister of El Salvador in Mexico, Dr. Juan Ramón Uriarte, died in Mexico City after six years' service in that post. Dr. Uriarte was well known as an educator, having taught in universities in his own country and abroad, and been head of the Normal School of El Salvador for many years. He had held diplomatic posts in Europe and America. At the time of his death Dr. Uriarte was a member of several Mexican learned societies. Three days of official mourning were decreed in Mexico at his death, and official honors paid at the station, when his body was taken to El Salvador for burial.

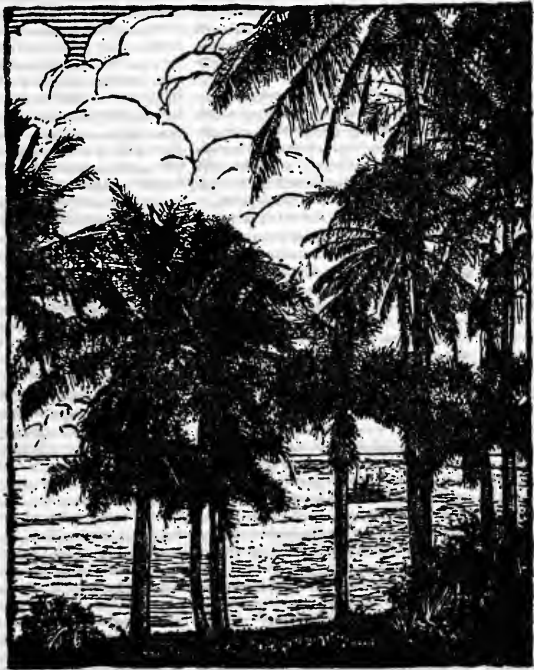
DR. CECILIA GRIERSON.—The first woman physician in Argentina, Dr. Cecilia Grierson, died in Buenos Aires on April 10, 1934. In defiance of the prejudices of the period, Dr. Grierson entered the Medical School of Buenos Aires in 1882, and received her degree seven years later. At the age of 14 she had begun teaching in a rural school, and she never ceased to combine the careers of teaching and medicine. In 1886 she founded the first nurses' training school in Argentina, receiving official recognition for it five years later. She was also the founder of the Argentine First Aid Society and the first vocational domestic-science school; the latter existed for several years, and was the forerunner of those now established in the capital and the provinces. In addition to her medical and executive work, Dr. Grierson conducted classes, in Spanish and in English, in hospitals, social and labor centers, and religious and lay secondary schools. She had traveled widely in Europe, where she observed especially schools of domestic science and agriculture. Among her published works were books on first aid, nursing, and practical massage.



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ON THE COAST OF PANAMA

AUGUST

1934

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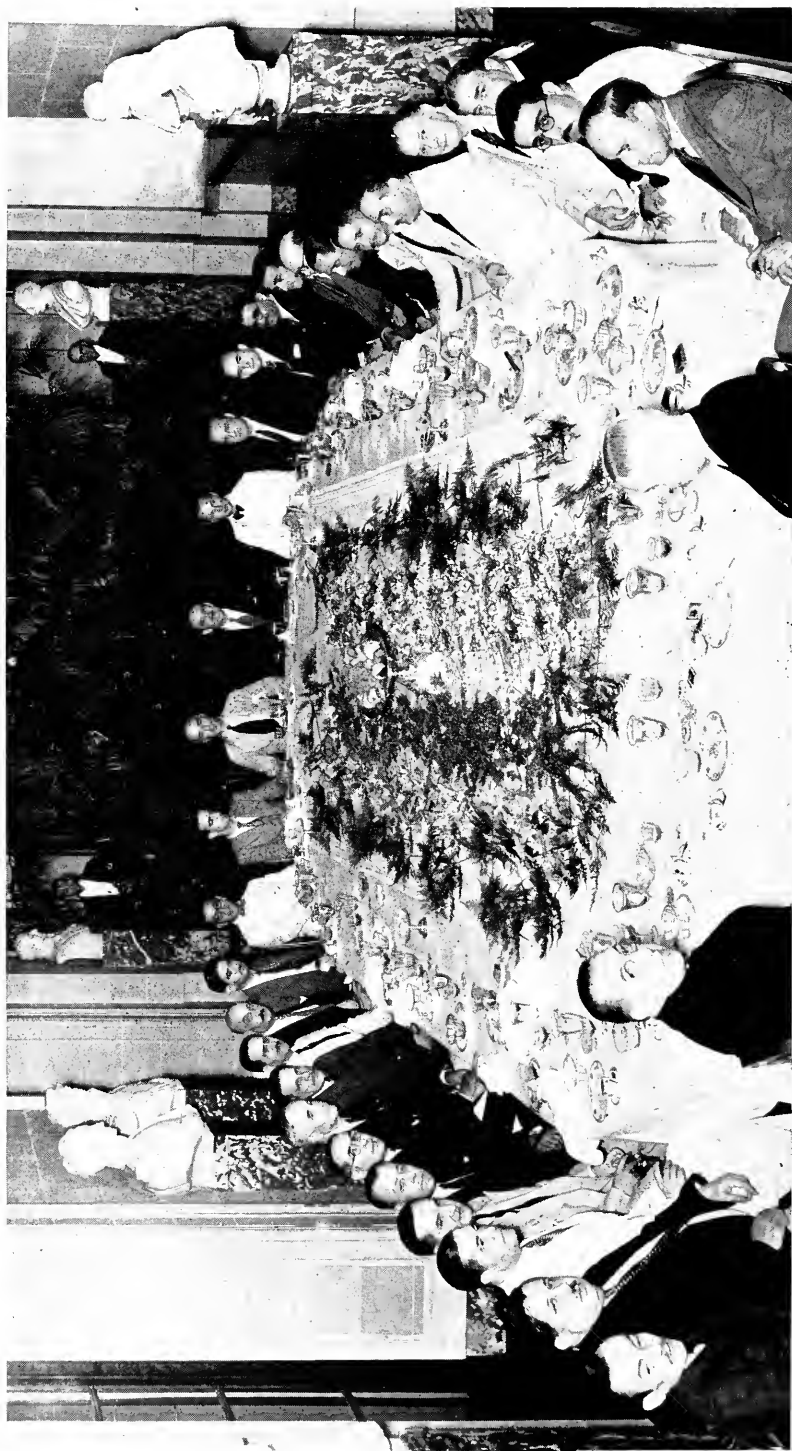
THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

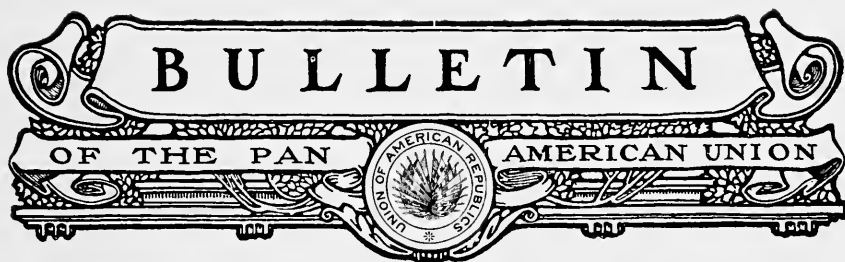
The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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LUNCHEON GIVEN AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION BY THE GOVERNING BOARD IN HONOR OF DR. ALFONSO LÓPEZ,
PRESIDENT-ELECT OF COLOMBIA.



VOL. LXVIII

AUGUST 1934

No. 8

DR. ALFONSO LÓPEZ, PRESIDENT-ELECT OF COLOMBIA, AND HIS RECENT VISIT TO WASHINGTON

ON August 7, 1934, Dr. Alfonso López will be inaugurated as the new President of Colombia to succeed Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera, the present incumbent. Doctor López was born on January 31, 1886, in the picturesque little town of San Bartolomé de las Palmas, today known as Hondas. His parents were Don Pedro A. López and Doña Rosario Pumarejo; owing to the limited educational facilities of the village, he received his early instruction from his mother. Later, after the family had moved to Bogotá, he was educated at private schools and by tutors. When 15 years old, he was sent abroad to continue his commercial studies; after sometime in London, he came to the United States, where he specialized in political economy and finance. In 1903 he took charge of the business house which his father had established in New York, and the following year, when he was only 18, he returned to Bogotá to manage his father's extensive interests there.

In 1910, at the close of the administration of Gen. Rafael Reyes, at the time when a new movement called "republicanism" was gathering momentum, young López and a group of enthusiastic friends founded a newspaper in Bogotá; it was called *El Liberal* and was markedly liberal in tone. Later, he contributed regularly to *El Republicano* serious and sound articles on financial matters. He was also at one time editor and part owner of *El Diario Nacional*.

Until he was 30, Dr. López was known throughout the country as a successful business man, but politically he had hardly begun to be felt as an influence in the Liberal Party. In 1915 he was elected Liberal deputy to the Assembly of the Department of Tolima, and his participation in that body revealed him as a man of great political ability.

Early in 1918 he made a trip to New York, where he took part in establishing the banking institution known as the American Mercantile Bank of Colombia, of which he was a vice president. After the bank had opened its main office in Bogotá, it founded branches in the principal mercantile centers of the country and organized as an affiliate, to deal with import and export matters, the corporation known as the Overseas Mercantile Company. After the death of the president of the bank the following year, Dr. López became head of the institution in Colombia.

After a number of years devoted to banking, Dr. López resumed his interest in politics and soon became one of the leading Liberals of Colombia. In 1930 he supported a campaign to have a Liberal candidate nominated for the presidency. As a result of his efforts Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera, then Minister to the United States, was nominated and elected.

As Colombian delegate to the Economic Conference at London in 1933, Dr. López took an active part in its proceedings. He also represented his country as Minister to the Court of St. James's for about a year.

Not only as a financier, banker, politician, and statesman has Dr. López served his country long and well. The Republic owes him a debt of gratitude for his active interest and effective participation in ending the controversy with Peru, which was successfully composed by the Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Cooperation signed by Colombian and Peruvian plenipotentiaries in Rio de Janeiro on May 24, 1934 (see p. 546). When conditions were most serious, Dr. López took advantage of the friendship he had formed in London with the President of Peru, Gen. Óscar Benavides, and in the capacity of a private citizen visited Lima and conferred with the President as to means of arriving at a dignified and satisfactory solution of the trouble between the two sister nations.

He played a notable part, as chairman of the Colombian delegation, in the Seventh International Conference of American States held in Montevideo in December 1933, displaying the qualities of an accomplished statesman and an internationalist of high ideals.

Since his election by an overwhelming majority in February 1934, Dr. López has made a good-will visit to the United States and Mexico. In June, accompanied by his wife and daughter, he came to the United States, where he was warmly received both in his official capacity and by his many friends.

On June 24 he arrived in Washington for a two days' visit as the guest of the Minister of Colombia, His Excellency Dr. Fabio Lozano Torrijos. He and his family were welcomed at the Union Station by the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, the Minister of Colombia, other officials and members of the diplomatic corps, the Director

General of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe, and the Army Band, which greeted the distinguished visitor by playing the national anthems of Colombia and the United States.

During his brief visit, Dr. López was extensively feted. The Governing Board of the Pan American Union met in special session on June 25 to greet him, following the meeting by a luncheon in his honor. At the entrance to the building, before whose classic facade the flags of the 21 republics, members of the Union, fluttered colorfully, Dr. López was received by a special committee of the Governing Board composed of Their Excellencies Felipe A. Espil, Ambassador of Argentina, Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala, and Emilio Edwards Bello, Chargé d'Affaires of Chile, and by the entire staff of the Pan American Union, whom he greeted individually. After the guest of honor had been escorted to the Governing Board Room and seated at the right of the chairman, the Secretary of State of the United States, Mr. Hull welcomed him in the name of his colleagues as follows:

As Chairman of the Governing Board, I enjoy the delightful privilege of extending to you on behalf of the Board a most sincere and hearty welcome. We deeply appreciate the honor of your visit not only because of the high office to which you have been called by the suffrage of your fellow citizens but also because of the important contributions which you have made to the cause of Pan American unity. Those of us who had the privilege of attending the Seventh International Conference of American States are well aware of the distinguished service which you rendered as Chairman of the Colombian delegation. I wish to take this opportunity to express a personal sense of obligation for your constant and unflinching cooperation in furthering the great purposes for which that Conference was called.

The members of this Board have another and equally important reason for paying this tribute to your eminent public services. We are all fully aware of the notable contribution which you made to the cause of inter-American relations in connection with the bringing about of a peaceful settlement of the question that arose between Colombia and Peru. We shall never forget the important steps which you took to that end. I am sure, moreover, that the peoples of the Americas have the greatest admiration and gratitude for the courageous statesmanship of the Governments of Colombia and Peru, who have furnished an example to the entire world of the efficacy of methods of peace.

We welcome you therefore not alone as the President-elect of Colombia but also as a great servant of the cause of Pan American solidarity. Permit us to combine with this welcome our sincere wishes for the success of your administration and for the progress and prosperity of the people of Colombia.

Obviously touched and pleased by these cordial sentiments, the President-elect of Colombia replied:

MR. CHAIRMAN AND MEMBERS OF THE GOVERNING BOARD:

I have the honor of being a guest of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at a time which is especially propitious for the aims of continental fraternity which this institution seeks to further.

It is my good fortune that it will devolve upon me to head the administration in Colombia when there is fresh in our minds the encouragement of the new policy whereby President Roosevelt is placing the relations of the United States with the other countries of the two Americas on a new basis, and when we who have an American vision are also encouraged by the increasing success of our peaceful undertakings, which have just had their most felicitous realization in the pacific solution of the Colombian-Peruvian controversy.

The purpose of my visit to Washington, more than bringing a message of good will, is to present to President Roosevelt and to Secretary Hull my congratulations on the new era which they have initiated in the relations of this great Republic with Hispanic America. I have already had occasion to applaud this initiative when it was announced by the Secretary of State at the Montevideo Conference in the sober and concrete declarations that anticipated to the world acts of the deepest importance, such as the abrogation of the Platt Amendment, and many others, which are helping our nations to come into closer touch with the United States and to find here that store of good faith, generous friendship, and constant and fruitful cooperation that an official policy based on different principles and sentiments did not permit all Latin Americans to appreciate in like manner. The harmony between our democracies and the United States is now unmarred by the slightest lack of confidence. The policy of the "good neighbor", pursued loyally and unswervingly by the present Government of the United States, has in a year's time fundamentally changed the atmosphere of anxiety or discordance in which our international relations were carried on, threatened for many years by the danger of intervention or the curtailment of the national sovereignty of some one of the members of the Pan American Union.

The titanic effort of this Government to save the United States from a dramatic and unprecedented depression could not be made without discarding the criterion accepted here regarding certain economic facts which unexpectedly, as far as the American citizen is concerned, ceased to be a spectacle occurring exclusively in the debtor countries and now turned into his own chief preoccupation. The experiments which we have had to make south of the Rio Grande in search of our welfare, or many times simply to avoid bankruptcy, cannot any longer be regarded as peculiarities of a race without endurance or reserves of energy, without economic stability or sufficient commercial morality. The frankness with which President Roosevelt is accustomed to appeal to public opinion for support whether he succeeds or not in his amazing experiments has helped to bring about a favorable change in the American mental attitude towards our countries. Today, any citizen of the United States grasps our struggles and difficulties with a cordial understanding which facilitates and encourages the cooperation of this great Nation with its sisters to the south, a cooperation which does not serve now as an excuse to consider our problems with the same feelings with which he considers his own.

Never has the occasion seemed more propitious to develop a Pan American policy which would have greater efficiency, popularity, and world importance. From day to day there become more deeply rooted in the conscience of our governments those political and social principles which from the early days of our independence have been hailed with enthusiasm and which have uniformly guided the actions of our nations. I must congratulate myself, Mr. Secretary and Members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, and I do congratulate myself with deep satisfaction on the fact that it will be the privilege of the Colombian administration of which I shall have the honor of being the Chief Executive to cooperate with the governments which you so ably represent, in the work of making the American nations greater, through this new liberal spirit of friendly cooperation which at last has affirmed its influence in the Western Hemisphere.

It is needless to say, but nevertheless I want to repeat today, that the next Colombian administration will never tire in its efforts toward peace in America, and that it will never consider as lost any attempt made towards this end with due regard to the sentiments and interests of the nations at war.

I do not want this insistence on offering the services of my country, and my own modest services, to be considered impertinent. Both will be promptly offered at any time at which the cause of peace may utilize them. It would be my greatest satisfaction if this tribute for which I am so greatly indebted to the Governing Board should give rise to a new call to the belligerents of the Chaco, made jointly by all the members of the Pan American Union, to bring to an end the international tragedy which burdens the conscience of the Continent.

On the following day Dr. López payed a visit to Arlington Cemetery, where he laid a wreath on the tomb of the Unknown Soldier. On his return to Washington, he was received at the White House by President Roosevelt, who tendered the illustrious visitor an official luncheon at which members of the Cabinet, Senators, Congressmen, Army and Navy officials, other Federal officials, and the Director General of the Pan American Union were present.

Late that afternoon Dr. López returned to New York, where he remained for three days before leaving for Mexico, at the invitation of President Abelardo L. Rodríguez and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. José Manuel Puig Casauranc. The President-elect returned to Colombia via Central America, thus rounding out his visit to the Americas.



THE COLOMBIAN-PERUVIAN PROTOCOL

WITH great satisfaction and hearty approval word was received in the American Republics and in other nations throughout the world that on May 24, 1934, the plenipotentiaries of Colombia and Peru, assembled in special conference in Rio de Janeiro under the chairmanship of Dr. Afranio Mello Franco, the former Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, had signed a Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Cooperation, thus ending the Leticia incident and reestablishing diplomatic relations between the two sister nations.

The terms of the protocol, drawn up by Dr. Mello Franco, state that it is the fundamental duty of states to outlaw war, resolve their differences by diplomatic or juridical means, and prevent the possibility of conflicts between them. The protocol ends the dispute which for nearly two years had been disturbing the long-standing friendship between Colombia and Peru, creates territorial statutes adequate for the peculiar conditions of that frontier region, and includes an agreement to study and resolve by peaceful and legal means all present and future differences, renouncing war forever. The instruments will be presented for ratification to the congresses of the two countries, which are soon to convene.

The impressive ceremony in which the delegates of the two countries signed the protocol took place in the Automobile Club of Brazil, in the presence of the Chief of the Provisional Government, Dr. Getulio Vargas, members of the diplomatic corps, and other eminent individuals.

At five o'clock Dr. Getulio Vargas, the Chief of the Provisional Government, arrived and was received at the entrance by all the representatives of foreign countries there assembled. With the President on the platform sat Senhor Mello Franco; the present Minister of Foreign Relations, Dr. Felix Cavalcanti de Lacerda; the Peruvian delegation, Dr. Víctor Maúrtua, chairman, Dr. Víctor Andrés Belaúnde and Dr. Alberto Ulloa, and the Colombian delegation, Dr. Roberto Urdaneta Arbeláez, chairman, Dr. Guillermo Valencia and Dr. Luis Cano. Provisional President Vargas first recognized the secretaries of the delegations, who read the agreement between their respective countries to observe the provisions of the protocol drawn up by the Rio de Janeiro Conference. Thereupon the members of the delegations signed the protocol, as did Senhor Mello Franco in his capacity as chairman of the conference auspiciously concluded.

The Chairman of the Colombian delegation then expressed the gratification of his country at the happy result of the conference, saying in part:

The signing of both the Protocol of Friendship and Cooperation between Colombia and Peru and its additional act closes in a dignified manner the rupture which, since September 1, 1932, has been separating our two nations; it dissipates the threat of immediate hostilities; it makes certain a lasting peace, and opens for the two States an alluring outlook of economic cooperation on the basis of common interest, mutual respect, and tranquil association in permanent contact in the river territories of our common frontier. . . .

One of the fundamental declarations of the protocol—undoubtedly the most important—is the solemn agreement drawn up between Peru and Colombia not to resort to force, directly or indirectly, as a means of solving present or future problems. . . .

All of us who have been fortunate enough to participate in this important event have still a debt difficult to pay; that of gratitude. Let us first of all give thanks to God, who inspired the presidents of our two nations, Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera and Gen. Óscar Benavides, the chief authors of accord, with whom the Colombian delegation desires to associate the President-elect of the Republic, Dr. Alfonso López.

Brazil, in the person of her illustrious Provisional President, Dr. Getulio Vargas, has continued the glorious traditions of this great nation by doing everything which altruism and brotherhood could do on behalf of this peace, of such consequence for the Americas.

The honorary chairman of the conference, His Excellency Senhor Afrânio de Mello Franco, a man of rare intelligence, faced the problem in all its complexity and was able to find points of contact for every apparently irreconcilable difference between the negotiators. His contagious optimism and imperturbable serenity always shone above the sometimes stormy vehemence of the debates. The perseverance of that outstanding gladiator did not yield a single point when a break seemed imminent. His love for peace, his love for the two nations who trusted his ability, his love for America, his love for humanity—which is synonymous with all the rest—led him stoically to suppress bitter and deep personal sorrows, to devote himself heart and soul to the imperative duty which he, a notable citizen of the world, the promoter and patron of our peace with honor, had agreed to fulfill.

Seven months of close association with the distinguished Peruvian delegation has strengthened our profound appreciation of and our sincere admiration for it. During seven months of tense and heated controversy with their delegates, the mutual duty of punctiliousness was never for a moment forgotten nor was our affection for such courteous gentlemen lessened.

The Colombian delegation expresses its especial gratitude to the League of Nations for the fairness in which it appreciated our international position in the conflict, so happily ended today, not under pressure through the sanctions of the League, but of our own free will, in homage to the guiding principles which we and the League have sworn to uphold and defend. . . .

We also owe a tribute of gratitude to many American States and to some European ones for the lively interest which they have taken in the rational solution of our difference. Colombia will never forget their generous and friendly gestures. . . .

After Dr. Urdaneta Arbeláez had spoken, Dr. Maúrtua, chairman of the Peruvian delegation, addressed the assemblage. In the course of his remarks he said:

We have successfully arrived at the end of a long journey. Here are the treaties which we have just signed. They are treaties of perpetual peace, of intimate friendship, of cooperation between Colombia and Peru. Their very titles completely define their content. They provide for the normalization of relations between the two republics. We have normalized them with nobility and with honor. Strong and cultured nations are not hampered by the casual incidents of their international life. Moreover, the treaties contain a sincere statement of the fraternal association of nations. There is, in a word, the concerted action of the two states to cooperate in the joint task of improving the conditions, the well-being, and the tranquility of the frontier population . . . It is the triumph of conciliation, which is the supreme resort of modern law and in the future will be the general rule in the commonwealth of nations. Humanity progresses, notwithstanding its present vacillations, toward the principle of agreements based on justice and on confidence. Free and coordinated volition, inspired by justice, will tomorrow be the source of peace and universal welfare. We have fostered such a solution between Colombia and Peru, offering a very significant example, because we have done it courageously, determined to quench all contrary passions that might disturb our labors . . .

Colombia and Peru have eliminated war forever. They vow to come to an understanding through the operation of justice. They have placed between them the empire of law and order. This is the greatest agency of which it is possible to conceive in regulating the human community . . . Such is the sentiment or spirit of our agreements. Such also is the spirit which, as we formulated those agreements, inspired the stimulating and coordinating part played by Brazil, in the person of the eminent American citizen directing the conference, Senhor Afranio de Mello Franco. He might be called a current of harmony transformed into a man. His has been a marvellously flexible, persuasive, powerful mind. His has been an impartial and effective interposition. He won the absolute confidence of the two High Contracting Parties and used it for the common good of both . . . Our Colombian friends—our friends yesterday, our friends today, our friends for life—did their duty as men, as patriots, and as Americans: to defend their country to the last extremity. Their beliefs and their wishes are expressed in the agreements, within the limits imposed by right and law. They never overstepped the border of ethics and of gentlemanliness; we were worthy adversaries; we always “played fair”, and now that it is over . . . we look each other in the face and shake hands, forgetting the recent past in the sweet revival of the other more distant past of intimate international friendship . . .”

After these addresses, Senhor Afranio de Mello Franco, chairman of the conference, to whom belongs the distinction of having successfully conducted its labors, gave an eloquent address, from which the following paragraphs are taken:

On October 25 last it fell to my lot, in my capacity as Minister of Foreign Affairs, to open the Colombian-Peruvian Conference, presiding at the inaugural session and offering to its illustrious members a welcome in the name of the Brazilian Government and people.

Some months later, on February 22, it again devolved upon me to preside, as chairman of the conference and not as Minister of Foreign Affairs, over a public session which took place on that date and which had been called especially to invest me with my duties in this connection.

In thanking you, gentlemen, and your illustrious governments for the signal honor which was conferred on Brazil in my humble person, I expressed my fundamental optimism as to the results of the conference when I said that that optimism was based on the certainty that the two nations in conflict were both inspired by the same spirit of conciliation essential for finding the formula of peace which we all sought.

During long months of hard work you have been erecting an indestructible edifice whose architectural beauty will amaze jurists, statesmen, sociologists, and philosophers of all countries; in the quiet of their studies, they will meditate on the peaceful solution of international conflicts. You were not concerned with haste, but with the proper accomplishment of the task intrusted to you. And so you have succeeded, with dignity and elevated spirit, in organizing a system of perpetual peace, of deep friendship, and of creative cooperation, not the work of one man or of a few men, but a collective and common work.

On June 19, 1934, the Commission of the League of Nations handed over to the Colombian civil authorities the town of Leticia, which it had been administering for a year. The ceremony consisted in an exchange of speeches between Gen. Ignacio Moreno of Colombia, Governor of the Amazonian Territory, and Commissioner Giráldez of Spain, in the name of the League, followed by the signing of the Act of Conveyance.

In the middle of June it was announced that, in accordance with the provisions of the protocol signed in Rio de Janeiro, the Governments of Colombia and of Peru had reestablished diplomatic relations and appointed as their respective ambassadors Drs. Gabriel Turbay and Víctor Andrés Belaúnde.

The complete text of the protocol signed in Rio de Janeiro is as follows:

¹ The Republic of Colombia and the Republic of Peru, executing the agreement adopted by them in Geneva on May 25, 1933,

Considering,

That both Republics, in harmony with the moral conscience of humanity, assert as a fundamental duty of States the proscription of war, the settlement of their difficulties politically or juridically and the prevention of the possibility of conflicts between them;

That this duty is the more agreeable for the States which compose the American community, among which exist historical, social, and sentimental ties, which cannot be weakened by divergencies or events which must always be considered in a spirit of reciprocal understanding and good will;

That this duty of peace and cordiality may be better accomplished by applying the methods established by contemporary international law, for the juridical settlement of differences between States, and for the guarantee and development of human rights;

¹ Translated from the *Jornal do Brazil*, May 25, 1934.

That the attitude which they now adopt should serve as a fraternal encouragement for the settlement of other international American conflicts:

Have appointed their respective plenipotentiary delegates, to wit:

His Excellency the President of the Republic of Colombia, their Excellencies Doctors Roberto Urdaneta Arbeláez, Guillermo Valencia, and Luis Cano. His Excellency the President of the Republic of Peru, their Excellencies Doctors Víctor M. Maúrtua, Víctor Andrés Belaúnde, and Alberto Ulloa. Who, having assembled in the city of Rio de Janeiro, capital of the Republic of Brazil, under the presidency of His Excellency Senhor Afranio de Mello Franco, and having exchanged their full powers which they have found in good and true form, have agreed to sign, in the name of their respective Governments, a protocol of friendship and cooperation as well as an additional act as follows:

PROTOCOL OF PEACE, FRIENDSHIP AND COOPERATION BETWEEN THE REPUBLIC OF COLOMBIA AND THE REPUBLIC OF PERU

Article 1. Peru sincerely deplores, as she has previously declared, the events which have taken place since September 1, 1932, which have disturbed her relations with Colombia. The two Republics having resolved to reestablish their relations, Peru expresses the wish that these may be restored with the same intimate friendship as in the past, and the profound cordiality of two sister peoples. Colombia shares these sentiments and declares that it has an identical purpose.

In consequence, Peru and Colombia agree simultaneously to accredit their respective Legations in Bogotá and in Lima.

Article 2. The boundary treaty of March 24, 1922, ratified on January 23, 1928, constitutes one of the juridical ties which bind Colombia and Peru and may not be modified or affected except by mutual consent of the parties or by a decision of international justice within the terms below established in Article 7.

Article 3. Negotiations between the two countries shall continue through normal diplomatic channels, in order that all pending problems may receive a just, lasting, and satisfactory solution; and in the course of said negotiations, the principles established in the present protocol shall be observed.

Article 4. In view of the common requirements of the two States in the valleys of the Amazon and Putumayo basins, Peru and Colombia are adopting special agreements regarding customs houses, commerce, free navigation of the rivers, protection of settlers, transit and policing of frontiers; and shall adopt such other agreements as may be necessary to obviate any difficulties which may or might arise in the frontier region between the two countries.

Article 5. The two States shall study an agreement for the demilitarization of the frontier, according to the normal requirements of their [or its] security. The two Governments shall for this purpose appoint a technical commission composed of two members for each of the High Contracting Parties, alternately presided over month by month by the official of the highest rank of each. The first president shall be chosen by lot. The seat of the Commission shall be fixed in common agreement by the two Governments.

Article 6. To supervise the agreements covered by article 4 and to stimulate their execution, a Commission of three members is hereby created, appointed by the Governments of Peru, Colombia, and Brazil, the president of which shall be appointed by the latter country. The seat of the Commission will be in territory of one or the other of the High Contracting Parties, within the limits of the region to which the above-mentioned agreements apply. The Commission shall be free to move from one point to another within those limits, in order more effectively to collaborate with the local authorities of both States for the maintenance

of a régime of permanent peace and good neighborliness on the common frontier. The period of duration of this Commission shall be four years, which may be extended at the discretion of the two Governments.

Paragraph 1. The Mixed Commission referred to has no police powers, administrative functions, or juridical competence in the territories under the jurisdiction of the High Contracting Parties whose authority shall be fully exercised therein.

Paragraph 2. However, if in the execution of the agreements above mentioned, which form an integral part of this treaty, there should arise any disputes due to acts or decisions which may imply a violation of any of the above-mentioned agreements or which may refer to the interpretation of them or to the nature or extension of the reparations due for the breaking of one of them—and such conflicts should be brought by the interested parties to the attention of the Commission—the latter will transmit them, together with its report, to the two Governments so that they may take adequate measures in common agreement.

Paragraph 3. In the absence of such an understanding and after a period of ninety days has elapsed, counting from the date of the communication to the two Governments, the dispute shall be settled by the Commission. Either of the two Governments may appeal, within a period of thirty days, from this decision, to the Permanent Court of International Justice at The Hague.

Paragraph 4. The two Governments shall request the Government of Brazil to cooperate in the composition of the Commission.

Article 7. Colombia and Peru solemnly obligate themselves not to make war, nor directly nor indirectly to employ force as a method for the settlement of their present problems or of any others which may arise in the future. If in any eventuality they should not succeed in settling them through direct diplomatic negotiations, either of the High Contracting Parties may appeal to the procedure established by article 36 of the Statute of the Permanent Court of International Justice, without the latter's jurisdiction being excluded or limited by the reservations which either of them may have made in the act of signing the optional clause.

Sole paragraph. In this case, the decision having been announced, the High Contracting Parties obligate themselves to come to an agreement regarding the methods for its realization. Should they not reach an agreement, there are conferred upon the Court, in addition to its ordinary competence, the powers necessary to carry out the decision in which it has declared the right of one of the High Contracting Parties.

Article 8. The present protocol and the agreements referred to in Article 4, shall be submitted within the shortest period possible to the ratification of the legislative power of the High Contracting Parties, without prejudice to the immediate application of all the measures, according to such constitutional law of each of them as does not depend upon the previous approval of the Power above mentioned.

Article 9. The exchange of the instruments of ratification of the present Protocol and of the additional act which accompanies it, shall be effected within the shortest time possible, before December 31st of the current year.

In faith of which the plenipotentiaries above mentioned have signed the present protocol and have affixed their seals, in two copies, at the city of Rio de Janeiro on the 24th day of May, 1934.

ADDITIONAL ACT

which constitutes an indivisible whole with the Protocol signed upon this date by the delegations of plenipotentiaries of Colombia and Peru, to which articles 4 and 6 of said protocol refer.

Article 1. Entire freedom of transit and navigation shall exist between the fluvial territories of Colombia and Peru, in the valleys of the Amazon and Putumayo. In the exercise of this freedom there shall be no distinction between flags. There also shall be no distinction between the nationals of either of the contracting States, nor between individuals who, coming from one of the States, may proceed to the territory of the other, nor between their property or possessions. In either of the States the nationals of both States shall be treated upon a basis of perfect equality. No distinction can be made by reason of the origin or destination or address of consignments.

Article 2. Colombian craft in Peru and Peruvian craft in Colombia navigating their common rivers, tributaries, and confluents are exempt from every impost whatever its origin or name.

Article 3. Coastwise commerce or that from port to port of the same country, even though passing through foreign waters, with or without transfer from one vessel to another, shall be subject in each of the two States to its respective laws. The two States shall study the possibility of extending reciprocally, up to a specified boundary from their respective river banks, the advantages and restrictions of their own coastwise navigation.

Article 4. Merchandise in transit shall not be examined by the fiscal or police authorities of either of the countries.

Article 5. In the exercise of the right common to both States to establish provisions and adopt measures required for the general policing of the territory and for the application of laws and regulations regarding the supervision and sanctions over contraband, health, precautions against diseases of animals and plants, emigration and immigration, importation and exportation of forbidden merchandise, it is understood that these provisions and measures shall not go beyond the limit of necessity and shall be applied upon a footing of perfect equality to the nationals and merchandise of both countries, which are proceeding to or from either of them, and in no case, without necessity, shall the freedom of navigation or transit which both countries recognize to each other in perpetuity in treaties now in effect, be obstructed.

Article 6. By common accord, Colombia and Peru may establish, when they deem it necessary, imposts of retributive character, which shall be exclusively destined in an equitable manner to the improvement of conditions of navigation of one or more of their common rivers or their tributaries and confluents and in general to the better service of navigation. Aside from these imposts, which shall be the same for the nationals, the vessels and the merchandise of both countries, no other imposts shall be collected between them on the visé of consular invoices, health, tonnage, captaincy of ports, bills of lading, manifests, statements, crew lists, passenger lists, ship store lists, or any other, no matter what its name or object, nor may they may the vessels of any flag, destined to the ports of one of the countries, to carry inspectors or fiscal officers of the other country, or to make forced calls at ports.

Article 7. All shipping owned and manned according to the laws of the country to which it belongs shall be considered Peruvian in Colombian ports and Columbian in Peruvian ports.

For the effects of this Article and for those of Article 2, it shall be understood that vessels, boats, launches, rafts for carrying lumber, rubber and other articles are included, as well as in general, all means of commerce and transit in use in the region. All of these shall enjoy the rights, advantages, and liberty now granted or which may be granted to their own nationals for the exercise of their business and activities.

Article 8. Merchant and war vessels of Colombia and Peru shall enjoy, furthermore, all the rights and privileges which, with respect to commerce and to river navigation, each one may have recognized or conceded, or may in the future recognize or concede to any other State.

II.

Article 9. The two States shall organize a special customs regime to facilitate frontier traffic and to protect and develop the commerce of their boundary river regions. For this purpose the custom house duties and imposts or accessory duties which must be paid on the merchandise, no matter where originating, shall be identical in either country in said regions. The two countries shall come to an agreement for the establishment of a common tariff, adequate to the requirements of the respective regions.

Until this tariff is agreed upon, the highest at present established shall govern.

The custom house regulations shall also be uniform for both countries in said regions with respect to the manner of collecting duties and the rules, formalities and charges which may be required by shipping operations.

Article 10. A system of customs exemptions shall be established according to which the products of either country, imported in exchange for products received from the other country for the same value, shall be exempt from taxes and duties, in order that each country may free an amount of products equivalent to that which the other has exported.

Article 11. Neither country shall collect duties, taxes or imposts upon agricultural products or their byproducts of the frontier zones, destined for exportation.

Lumber destined for working in saw mills, for exportation, shall be exempt from all import or export taxes.

Article 12. Persons and ships under any flag and merchandise in transit which, destined to the fluvial ports of either country, may have to touch at the ports of the other country, shall be exempt from any impost, tax or contribution, as well as from all those formalities which may obstruct, impede or prejudice in any way their transit. No deposit shall be required.

Article 13. Such merchandise in transit shall be free in either country from the requirement of consular visés and from any other documents or formalities, excepting only those indispensable to hygiene and public safety; in this case, however, they shall be given without the respective officials being allowed to collect any duty, tax or contribution and without causing detriment to freedom of transit, [un]justified delay in the forwarding, or surcharge on freight.

Article 14. The High Contracting Parties shall proceed without delay to constitute a mixed Commission composed of three Colombian citizens and three Peruvian citizens, appointed by the respective Governments to develop the work of the most complete customs cooperation. It shall be the duty of this Commission: First, to suggest a common customs tariff for Colombian and Peruvian river ports, in the region comprising the valleys of the common rivers. Second, to suggest the unification of the customs regulations to be applied by the authorities of both countries in the fluvial ports. Third, to draw up and propose the system of customs exemptions referred to in Article 10. Fourth, to study all the provisions regarding policing of frontiers to be applied by either country in the fluvial regions in order to unify the above-mentioned provisions and to adapt them as well as possible to the requirements of the region, endeavoring to give the greatest facilities to its inhabitants.

Article 15. It shall also be the duty of the Mixed Commission, mentioned in the preceding article: First, to suggest to the Governments the establishment of an equitable system, equal in both countries, of municipal decisions regarding food supplies coming from neighboring farms and regarding lumber, woods and palm leaves. However, while this system is being established, none of the above-mentioned duties shall be collected in either country by the Municipal authorities. Second, to suggest the regulation of a system of free commerce, exempt from any impost or tax, for food supplies, medicines, cotton cloth and tools, brought from abroad, to the frontier regions of the Putumayo.

However, until this system is established, no contribution or tax will be collected on the introduction of these articles. Third, to organize a system of cooperation to prevent smuggling on the frontiers and facilitate its suppression.

III

Article 16. The two States shall make every effort to exercise in the respective fluvial boundary regions a careful vigilance for the effective safety of the enjoyment and exercise of civil rights and individual guarantees recognized by their laws, of the inhabitants dispersed throughout the forests and those who inhabit the cities and populated centers of the river valleys. The two States consider the measures above mentioned as an essential condition of international juridical life.

Article 17. The two States shall apply in their fluvial territories the principles of law which assert human dignity, labor, and the freedom and welfare of their civilized and uncivilized inhabitants. Consequently they recognize: (a) That labor should not be considered an article of commerce; (b) that labor should receive a wage which will assure it an appropriate standard of living in accordance with the circumstances of the locality and time; (c) that norms established in each country regarding labor conditions should guarantee an economic and equitable recompense and have in mind the safety and hygiene of the laborer, the work done by him, the climate, age, sex, food, cultural requirements and the necessary daily and weekly rest, the latter of at least 24 hours; (d) that wages should be equal, regardless of sex; (e) that the laborer in the forest regions should be especially protected against danger and disease.

Article 18. With reference to the Indians, not adapted or not completely adapted to civilization, the two States recognize it as their fundamental duty, in their respective zones of contact, to charge themselves assiduously and preferentially with the situation of the indigenous tribes, with a view to protecting them, educating them, aiding them, and improving their present condition.

(a) Public instruction shall be promoted and schools shall be established in which instruction shall be given in the language of the Indians.

(b) All forced and obligatory labor shall be prohibited.

(c) The transmission of property does not impose the obligation of emigrating.

(d) Freedom of movement is assured with respect to entrance, transit, or return one or more times without other formalities than those which custom and the general laws may have established, which formalities shall not be applied to the Indians.

(e) The principles adopted by the League of Nations regarding alcoholic beverages, arms and munitions, and the prevention and combating of diseases of plants and animals shall be applied.

(f) An effort shall be made in the settlements of the natives to prepare them especially for civilized life in their places of origin where the task of attracting and preparing their companions shall be effected.

(g) The High Contracting Parties shall maintain, at their expense, in specified localities, dispensaries sufficiently supplied with the drugs and instruments required for the methodical continuous or occasional treatment of the Indians, for the maladies common to the region or in times of epidemic. This service shall be technically organized for the purpose.

(h) The High Contracting Parties shall provide that not only in the private companies of exploitation, but also in the special posts and foundations and in the Indian settlements, plants adapted to the region shall be sowed in order to eliminate certain diseases of the zone, caused by deficient alimentation and that the Indian shall be taught to cultivate them.

(i) The High Contracting Parties shall provide that the wages received by the Indians shall be converted into work tools, clothes, household goods, et cetera, and in no case into alcoholic beverages. They shall also take measures to save them from persons exploiting their ignorance and ingenuousness.

(j) The same Mixed Commission intrusted with the fulfillment of the agreements shall organize a service of inspection which shall assure faithful compliance with the above-mentioned principles, the application of which shall be confided to the loyalty and humanitarian sentiment of the two States.

In faith of which the Plenipotentiaries above mentioned have signed the present Additional Act and have thereunto affixed their seals, in two copies, at the city of Rio de Janeiro, on the twenty-fourth day of May, nineteen hundred and thirty-four.

AFRANIO DE MELLO FRANCO
ROBERTO URDANETA ARBELÁEZ
GUILLERMO VALENCIA
LUIS CANO
VÍCTOR M. MAÚRTUA
V. A. BELAÚNDE
ALBERTO ULLOA
ELISEO ARANGO, Srío.
RAÚL PORRAS B., Srío.



MUSIC IN LATIN AMERICA ¹

By ELEANOR HAGUE

DURING their early travels in the Western Hemisphere, the Spaniards came into contact with Indians of many tribes and in varying stages of culture. Among these the best known are, of course, the Incas, the Mayas and the Aztecs, who were also at that time the most highly developed. Architecture and the crafts of weaving, pottery, and metal work, as well as the ceremonial side of life, were all at an advanced stage. The reports sent back to the Old World have comparatively little to say about the more primitive Indians, except as to their fighting powers. But among the accounts of the more civilized races there are interesting descriptions of temple ceremonies and secular fiestas, which include notes on the instruments and the dances; drums of many kinds and sizes; trumpets made of bone, clay, and other substances; conches; flutes or pipes, and rattles of many classes. The dances were sometimes performed by small groups and sometimes by great numbers. One description speaks of the group of musicians in the center of a space, with the dancers making concentric circles about them, the dignitaries and nobles in the inner rings and the young people at the outer edges. All were supposed to keep their relationship both to their own ring and to a radius, which forced those in the outer circles to dance at top speed. The dances often had a dramatic element in them; the performers wore costumes of birds or beasts or insects. One dance in particular impressed the Spaniards so much that they learned it and on their return to Spain danced it before the king. The account says that it was highly commended for its beauty and dignity.

Indian singing was sometimes choral and sometimes an alternation between solo and chorus. Occasionally the voices are described as harsh and again as sweet. Apart from the ceremonial music, there was also, at least in certain parts of the continent, music expressive of personal emotion. Garcilaso Inca de la Vega describes serenades played on the flute, in which the lover almost conversed with his lady love. Such an expression of emotion might easily be spontaneous and not indicative of the state of development reached in musical ways, but ceremonial music, especially when performed by large groups, implies planning and rehearsing. This in itself shows that an art even if primitive is in the process of being born. And so it was; even then schools for musical training existed to which the important people sent their children.

¹ Author of "Latin American Music, Past and Present", Fine Arts Press, Santa Ana, California, 1934.

The early writers have little to say of the more primitive races, and it is only from much later travelers that satisfactory descriptions are to be gleaned. Within the last hundred, or hundred and fifty years, books of travel are more numerous and far more detailed as to folk customs and music. Instruments, ceremonies, and festivals are described, the latter full of inherited traditions and superstitions. The instruments mentioned previously continue to be used, and to these are added various native versions of the guitar, the fiddle, and the harp. In the traditional ceremonies, the magical element is often present, and music and dance are frequent in ceremonies of invoca-

A FLUTE PLAYER.

A painting by F. Cossio del Pomar, a modern Peruvian artist, shows a highland Indian playing his "quena."



tion meant to ward off illness or other evil. Earthquakes, eclipses, difficulties with the crops and many other experiences of life are times for appealing to supernatural agencies for help; dancing and singing are then considered to add greatly to the efficacy of the invocation. Often an interesting mixture of Catholic worship and traditional nature worship is still to be found.

In contrast to the back country just referred to, whether mountain or jungle, where the Indian comes little in touch with the outside world, the inhabitants of the more easily accessible regions show the results of contact in many ways. For wherever there is race fusion

there is musical hybridization, with many interesting and fascinating results. In the simple rural communities the local characteristic dances and songs are the outgrowth of inheritance plus the kind of life that is led, due to geographic conditions. The study of the relationship between the life of a people and its music is one that is still in its infancy, but Latin America would be an especially rewarding place for such an effort, for contrasts are seldom found elsewhere in such intensity. The limits of this article would preclude going into detail, but at one end, as we have said, is the primitive Indian of the



THE PANPIPES.

The instrument carried by this little boy is common throughout the Andean highlands of South America, where it is known as the "rondador" or "zampoña." It is the same as the panpipes or syrinx of the Greeks.

hinterland. He has a strong penchant for the pentatonic scale, or other rather abbreviated scales. Nearer to civilization the race mixture brings with it sometimes the major or minor scale, but often delightful variants born of the union of the two types. The rhythms are sometimes the familiar two-and-three part rhythms that we all know, but often two or more simultaneous rhythms are found, or alternations between two different kinds, as for instance, 3, 3, 2, or 4, 3, making units quite out of the ordinary rut. The characteristic types developed by such simple devices, and the skill with which the folk musician handles them are a continual delight to the listener. Thus the *cueca*, the *pericón*, the *chacarera*, the *yaraví*, the *fado*, the *son* and the *jarabe*, to mention only a few, are full of grace and charm. Among

the best of them there is that little element of the unexpected which is one of the essentials to any good music—some originality in the detail and the patterning, or a turn of melody, or a figure in the rhythm.

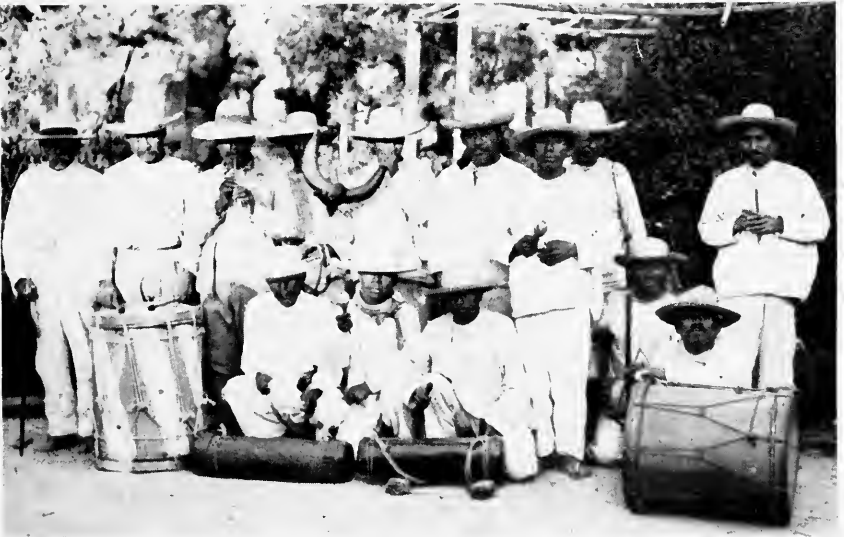
The songs and dances just mentioned, and others as well, were slowly growing up during the colonial period of Latin American history, principally among the mestizo population. The greater number belong actually to the last one or two hundred years, but it is hard to date them accurately. They come from people in many



Courtesy of Frances R. Grant.

A GROUP OF PERUVIAN INDIAN MUSICIANS.

Flutes and various stringed instruments, including a form of harp, may be noted in this photograph.



A GROUP OF GUATEMALAN INDIAN MUSICIANS.

Various forms of drums, wind instruments, and rattles are used in Guatemala.

walks of life, the pioneers, the ranching families, and the town dwellers, and vary in character according to the occupations and modes of living. Among them all, that delightful talent which is so often lost among the more northerly races, the gift for improvisation, is often present. There are accounts from practically all the countries of festivals where improvisation was a very important part, and also of competitions between folk musicians. The writer has heard excellent impromptu verses sung at an evening gathering, in compliment to distinguished guests present. Let us hope that the gift will not be lost in the greater hurry of modern life.

During the whole colonial period there was a slow process of evolution and hybridization going on, with phases of considerable variety in the different parts of the continent. Many writers have given



THE ZAMACUECA, A
CHILEAN FOLK DANCE,
SIMILAR TO THE PERU-
VIAN MARINERA.

From an old print.

vivid pictures of the civilized and sophisticated music of the cities. Madame Calderón de la Barca describes Mexico in the middle of the nineteenth century, Captain Hall describes the coast cities of South America a quarter of a century earlier—to mention two authors who wrote in English. In Spanish and other European languages there is a vast number of fascinating books, each of which adds something to the picture.

All of the slowly changing life has helped to lead up to the development now going on among the trained musicians of Latin America. These musicians have all the education of the excellent music schools of their own countries, and many are graduates of the great conservatories of Europe. In this development they have reached beyond the point of growth that was to be found during the nineteenth century, when there was a fashion for imitating European models of

the day. Now they are interested in a growth of their own, an expression of the elements of their own individuality. They are studying the Indian folklore and inheritance, and the Spanish and Portuguese as well. Also, in Cuba and some of the other tropical regions there is added a Negro strain. This touch, as always, brings with it an amazing gift for rhythms which, mingled with the already present talent of the Indian and the Latin, gives a flair for rhythmic patterns that the rest of us can admire but seldom equal.

Thus there is in process of development a national, racial art which is truly the expression of Latin America—of Mexico, Brazil, Peru, Argentina, and of all the rest. The results are already evident in an ever-growing number of excellent compositions, operas, symphonies, ballets, sonatas, and pieces in all the smaller forms. The movement is still young enough so that the final flowering is only to be glimpsed in the future, but the auguries are excellent, for the vigor, the technique, the zest for experimentation, and the vision are all there. The next few decades should bring results that will make the music of other countries look to its laurels.

LATIN AMERICAN MUSIC AT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

ON May 25, 1924, the first concert of Latin American music under the auspices of the Pan American Union was broadcast from the studio of station WRC in Washington, with the idea of giving listeners throughout the Americas a glimpse of the musical development of the other American Republics. After the first few concerts, however, it was decided that it was more fitting for them to come from the Pan American Union itself. So the transfer was made, and from the first concert broadcast from the Union, attended by only a handful of guests, to those of the present day, which are social as well as musical events in the Washington calendar, a varied and interesting repertoire has been heard by thousands of auditors.

At the beginning, the selection of Latin American music available was sadly limited, and many pieces had to be especially orchestrated. But as time went on, composers realized the advantage of having their works performed at the Pan American Union concerts, and during the past 10 years many a composition has had its world première under the gleaming chandeliers of the Hall of the Americas, or in the moonlit enchantment of the Aztec Garden. The Union has been fortunate in the cooperation of the United States Army, Navy, and Marine Bands and the United Service Orchestra, the latter composed of musicians from the first three and directed by their leaders in turn.

For some years the concerts have been not only broadcast throughout the Nation, through the courtesy of the National Broadcasting Co. and NAA, the Navy station at Washington, but also sent through the short-wave channels of the International General Electric Company at Schenectady and the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company at Pittsburgh for rebroadcasting in the other American nations.

Since the concerts were moved to the Pan American Union Building, they have become increasingly popular with Washingtonians. The high musical standards set by the composers and the guest artists and the increasing knowledge of the musical resources of the other American Republics on the part of the public have given the concerts place among the most brilliant events of the year. To many the knowledge that Carlos Gomes, Teresa Carreño, and Margarita d'Álvarez were fellow Americans came as a surprise, and the fact that these world-famous composers and musicians were representatives of a great musical culture, instead of being isolated examples of genius, was even more surprising.

Among modern composers, interest in the indigenous music of their native land has produced many notable works: J. Valle Riestra, composer of the opera *Ollanta*, and Daniel Robles, who orchestrated an ancient Andean melody under the title *El Cóndor Pasa*, are Peruvians of note; Maya music has been put into modern form by the Guatemalan Jesús Castillo in his opera *Quiché Vinac*; and Carlos Lavín of Chile has used Araucanian themes in *Lamentations Huilliches*. Creole melodies, a blending of Spanish and native music, are another source to which modern composers, from Argentina to Mexico, have gone with most gratifying results. More than fifty guest artists have contributed their services to promoting a wider knowledge of the music of their own and neighboring countries.

An exotic note is added to the rendition of this music by the skillful use of indigenous instruments. The marimba has become familiar to many as a result of the popularity of Caribbean cruises; at one of the early concerts "The President's Own" Marimba Orchestra of Guatemala delighted listeners with its selections, and the instrument has been used on many subsequent occasions. Gourds, too, have been used as two distinct instruments, the *maraca*, a kind of rattle, and the *guayo*, which is scraped with a stick to give a rasping sound. A native Peruvian harp in the possession of the Pan American Union enhanced the effectiveness of a recent program, and the *quena*, a flute also played by the Indians of the Andes, has been added to the band instruments.

Four guest conductors have appeared at these concerts: Mrs. E. M. S. de Pate (the Uruguayan composer "Elisabetta"); Alberto Galimany of the National Band of Panama; Gonzalo Roig, leader of the National Band of Habana, and Enrique Caroselli, orchestra conductor of Uruguay.

The early concerts were nearly always accompanied by an address from some leading diplomat or official of the capital; this custom has now ceased, except upon special occasions. Such a one was the concert on April 14 last, Pan American Day, when the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, spoke on the significance of the day and sent a cordial greeting of friendship from the United States to the other American republics.

During the present year three concerts have been given at the Union. The first one, the Pan American Day concert, was given in the Hall of the Americas by the United Service Orchestra, conducted by Capt. William J. Stannard, leader of the United States Army Band Orchestra, and Lieut. Charles Benter, leader of the United States Navy Band Orchestra. One number—*An Appeal to the Great Spirit*, by R. J. Hernández, dedicated to Ecuador—had its first rendition; another—*Quenas*, by Luis Dunker Lavalle of Peru—had its first rendition by the orchestra; while a third—*Elegía*, by Luis A. Calvo of Colombia, was dedicated to the United States Marine Band. The artists were no less noteworthy than the program. Eduardo Caso, a Latin American tenor who has appeared on many radio programs, was the vocal soloist. The eight-year-old Cuban pianist, Margot Ros, whose technique and interpretation would have done credit to an artist several times her age, created a sensation.

The second and third concerts, on May 28 and June 26, respectively, were held out of doors in the Aztec Gardens at the rear of the Union. The May concert was given by the United States Army Band, Captain Stannard conducting, assisted by Juan Arvizu, a Mexican tenor, and the Lisa Gardiner dancers. No fewer than five numbers on the program were first renditions. The singing of Señor Arvizu was warmly received, as were the Mexican, Cuban, and Peruvian dances of Miss Gardiner and her associates.

The second of the summer series of out-door concerts was given by the United States Marine Band, Capt. Taylor Branson conducting, with Francisco Tortolero, an internationally known Mexican tenor, as the guest artist. More familiar pieces were played at this concert, including Fantasia no. 2, *Aires Colombianos*, by Emilio Murillo, who had dedicated it to the United States Marine Band. A feature of the evening was the performance of an arrangement of melodies by Stephen Foster, published through the courtesy and generosity of Mr. J. K. Lilly for distribution among musical organizations of Latin America in the interests of closer cultural relations between the republics of the American continent.

A third concert, by the United States Navy Band, will be held about the middle of September and conclude the 1934 series of open-air musical evenings.

RECENT PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS



Courtesy of the Legation of the Dominican Republic, Washington, D.C.

BARRACKS IN SANTO DOMINGO.

This new building was constructed in 1932 for the presidential guard.



Courtesy of the Legation of the Dominican Republic, Washington, D.C.

GENERALÍSIMO TRUJILLO BRIDGE.

This bridge over the Yuna River, in Bonao, which was opened in August 14, 1933, is 450 feet long and 18 feet wide. It bears the name of the present President of the Republic, who has given a decided impetus to public works.

IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

RAMFIS BRIDGE, PROVINCE OF SAN PEDRO DE MACORIS.

This bridge over the Higuamo River, which was opened May 18, 1934, is the highest suspension bridge in the Republic. It is 1,044 feet long, with a 20-foot roadway 72 feet above the river. The towers are 119 feet high.



Courtesy of the Legation of the Dominican Republic, Washington, D.C.

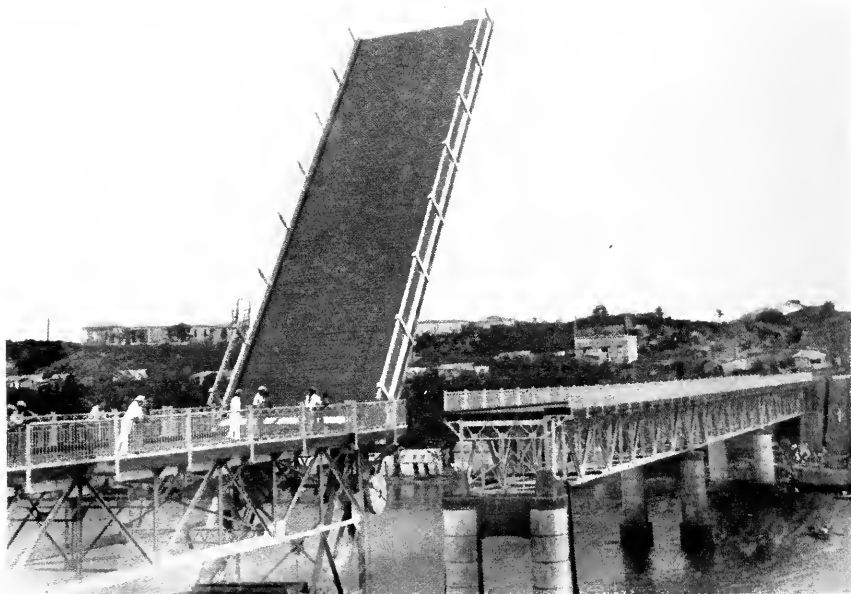


Courtesy of the Legation of the Dominican Republic, Washington, D.C.

HIGHWAY CONSTRUCTION.

This road, now under construction, leads to La Toma, a seaside resort near San Cristóbal.

RECENT PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS



Courtesy of the Legation of the Dominican Republic, Washington, D.C.

IMPROVEMENTS IN THE DOMINICAN CAPITAL.

Upper: President Trujillo Avenue, in the southern section of Santo Domingo. Lower: Drawbridge over the Ozama River, reconstructed after the hurricane.

IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC



Courtesy of the Legation of the Dominican Republic, Washington, D.C.

TWO OTHER NEW BRIDGES.

Upper: San Rafael Bridge, over the Yaque del Norte River, in the Province of Santiago. This, the first suspension bridge built in the Dominican Republic, was opened September 24, 1933. Lower: Yubaso Bridge, dedicated February 11, 1934, as a part of the San Cristóbal Highway to La Toma.

THE NATIONAL MUSEUM OF FINE ARTS IN BUENOS AIRES

THE National Museum of Fine Arts of Argentina was created by a decree of July 16, 1895, and officially opened on December 25 of the following year in a rented building. With the approach of the celebration of the Centenary of Argentine Independence, in 1910, a new home was sought, and the Argentine Pavilion at Arenales 651 was selected. The museum was to remain there only temporarily, as the building was inadequate and unsuitable for the purpose, but as a matter of fact it was not removed until September 1932.

All attempts in the period 1910-30 to find a site satisfactory to both museum authorities and government and municipal officials had come to nothing. With the accession of Provisional President Uriburu, in 1930, however, action was taken and an edifice in the Recoleta section of the city—Avenida Alvear 2273—was designated for the museum. Thanks to the intelligent and painstaking devotion of the architect, Señor Alejandro Bustillo, the building has been adapted to its new purpose so admirably that it compares favorably with the finest museums elsewhere.

The present museum building contains a large and well-proportioned sculpture hall; 25 large rooms devoted to paintings; a comfortable and complete special library, open to the public; ample storage space, dry and airy; a well-equipped workshop for restoration and repair work; and splendid offices. The arrangement is so planned that, in spite of differences in level on what is now the ground floor, the visitor has a minimum of strain or fatigue in following a logical course through the museum.

The nucleus around which the museum was first developed was a bequest of 81 canvases from Señor Adriano E. Rossi, to which were added the best paintings and pieces of sculpture belonging to the Government and previously placed in state buildings. Donations of varying importance from private citizens were received during the next ten years, but it was not until after the Centenary of Argentina Independence celebration that the National Museum of Fine Arts became really important. From the works displayed at the International Fine Arts Exhibition representative works of European and American schools were acquired, thus starting the museum on its way to becoming, as it is today, one of the most important galleries of modern art in the world. It has won this enviable reputation among public galleries not only because it includes significant works of each school, but also because of the discriminating taste evident in their selection.

There is not a single important artist in the annals of Argentine art who is not represented by one or more works. Of the foreign schools, the French is the most fully represented; there are examples of approximately one hundred artists, including practically all of the outstanding masters of modern times. Works of modern and contemporary Spanish artists may be seen, from Goya to the Zubiaurre brothers. There are also paintings from Germany, Belgium, England, Holland, Italy, and the other American republics. The museum, while primarily modern in character, has also a few choice works of older schools. Original sculpture is also displayed in the museum,

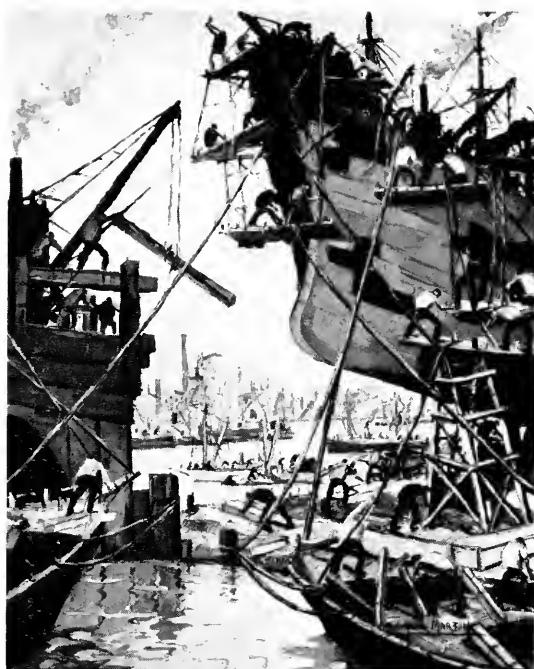
"THE WITCH DOCTOR", BY CESAREO BERNALDO DE QUIRÓS.



Quirós has painted a remarkable series of pictures depicting the vanished gaucho of Entre Ríos, as described in the *Bulletin* for March 1932. The artist, now in the United States, is devoting his attention chiefly to portrait-painting, for which he is admirably qualified by his gifts of characterization, color, and design.

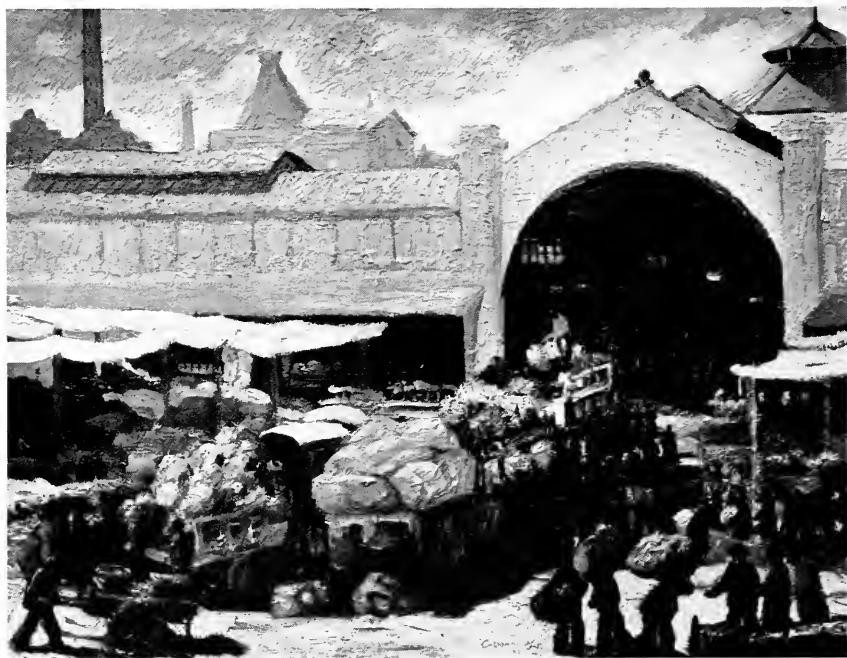
the majority of the artists being Argentine. There is an excellent collection of modern prints by Argentine and foreign artists. Those who were privileged to see the Argentine exhibit of graphic art in the United States a year ago can attest its high quality.

The museum has been fortunate in its directors. The first was Señor Eduardo Schiaffino; the task of reorganization and installation after the museum had been temporarily closed was entrusted to Señor Carlos E. Zuberbühler, a professor and historian of art of great repute. He did his utmost to adapt a building inadequate and unsuitable in every way to the needs of a modern museum.



"SHIP UNDER REPAIR",
BY B. QUINQUELA
MARTIN.

This artist interprets in bold composition and glowing color the achievements of human industry.



"THE MARKET", BY CAYETANO DONNIS.

Another scene from the busy daily life of Buenos Aires.



"THE OUTSKIRTS OF PUENTE ALSINA," BY FERNANDO PASCUAL AYLLÓN.

His successor in 1911 was Dr. Cupertino del Campo, who had been General Secretary of the National Fine Arts Commission; for 17 years he tried valiantly to solve the difficulties of space and of lighting—increasingly serious as the acquisitions of the museum grew through purchases, donations, and legacies—in an old building. Doctor del Campo is well known in the United States, for he was a member of the Argentine Committee at the San Francisco Exposition in 1916 and was active in arranging for Argentine participation in the First Baltimore Pan American Exhibition of Contemporary Paintings held in that city in 1931, as well as in selecting the prints for the exhibit of graphic arts mentioned above.

The present director of this important national gallery is Señor Atilio Chiappori, who, during the many years he was its secretary, contributed much to its development. In addition to being an art authority, Señor Chiappori is a distinguished author, who has been called perhaps the finest artist among Argentine short-story writers. He is aided by Señor Augusto da Rocha, jr., a noted painter, as secretary, and Señor Juan Carlos Oliva Navarro as restorer. The latter, in

"DR. ANGEL H. ROF-
FO", BY JUAN CAR-
LOS OLIVA NAVAR-
RO.

The portrait bust in granite
of a noted Argentine can-
cer specialist is an excel-
lent example of the work
of a leading sculptor.



"PORTRAIT OF A
MAN", BY FRANCIS-
CO VIDAL.

Reminiscent of Holbein in
composition and model-
ling of the head is this low-
toned portrait.



addition to being an able sculptor, has done much to foster cultural relations between Argentina and other nations. He was largely responsible for the exhibit of Argentine art held in Rio de Janeiro last October, on the occasion of the visit of President Justo to Argentina's northern neighbor.

The museum has been playing an increasingly important role in the development of national culture since 1911. In that year the first National Salon was held, largely owing to the efforts of the chairman of the National Fine Arts Commission, Dr. José R. Semprún, ably seconded by Dr. del Campo. As a result of that first exhibition of local art the organization of the Argentine rooms in the museum was begun.

In the new building, well adapted as it is for its purposes, there is not enough wall space for the entire collection. In view of that fact, the paintings are hung in rotation; that is, while the major works have their permanent place on the walls, the rest are changed periodically—every three or six months—being replaced by others similar in technique and aesthetic value. But, realizing that visitors may wish to see for a special purpose some work not on exhibition, the directors are planning to organize an experimental or research division. There the visitor may have at his disposal works listed in the catalog but in temporary or permanent storage.

In 1912, under Dr. del Campo, lectures on art subjects were begun, the first of their kind to be given in the country. The speakers included distinguished Argentine literary figures and statesmen, and not a few foreign authorities visiting the country from time to time. With the opening of the new building, it was announced that two art courses would be inaugurated. The *Bulletin* of the museum for January and February 1934 describes the plan in detail. The first course will consist of lectures on highly specialized subjects, for connoisseurs, collectors, and students, to be given by national and foreign art historians and critics of recognized authority. Such lectures, necessarily technical and intensive in character, will appeal only to a small and select group. The second will be for the general public, and will consist of classes held under the direction of the director and the secretary of the museum, exclusively. The lessons, which will be illustrated by both black and white and colored slides, will begin, according to present plans, with the development of nineteenth century painting and sculpture, preceded by a review of the history of art.

Another innovation introduced by Dr. del Campo was the publication of a *Bulletin* containing descriptions of acquisitions and other information about the museum. This was begun in 1928, but was forced to suspend 4 years ago. At the beginning of this year, at Señor Chiappori's instance, it reappeared in slightly altered form.

The purpose of the *Bulletin*, as expressed on the opening page, is "the task of describing each month completely, concisely, and clearly, not only the activities peculiar to the museum, but also the official data which the National Bureau [of Fine Arts] transmits to us. . . . without excluding the information given us by art associations and sculpture galleries. Moreover, in each number, we shall include a brief summary of the private galleries which have a real aesthetic contribution to make."

The museum has been greatly aided by the Association of Friends of the Museum. This organization has fostered the loan of paintings privately owned to the museum, and it was under its auspices that the magnificent exhibit of French paintings of the last 100 years was held last October and November. It is hoped that that will be but the first of many such loan exhibitions, similar to those current in Europe and the United States.



THE CONVENTION ON NATIONALITY OF WOMEN AND THE INTER-AMERICAN COMMISSION OF WOMEN

ONE of the six conventions adopted by the Seventh International Conference of American States meeting at Montevideo in December 1933 was the Convention on the Nationality of Women, signed on December 26, 1933, by representatives of 19 of the 20 nations there represented. (Costa Rica sent no delegate to the conference, and the delegation from Venezuela did not sign.) The nations which adhered to this convention agreed that: "Article 1. There will be no distinction based on sex as regards nationality, in their legislation or in their practice." The delegations of El Salvador, Honduras, and the United States signed with reservations, the first because ratification would be possible only after its naturalization law had been changed, the second "with the reservations and limitations which the Constitution and laws of our country determine", and the third because "the agreement on the part of the United States is, of course and of necessity, subject to congressional action."

The convention was signed by President Roosevelt on June 30, 1934.

The United States was the first nation to ratify this convention.

This is the only treaty on equal nationality rights for men and women ever signed. At the instance of the Inter-American Commission of Women such a document was presented at the Conference on International Law held at The Hague under the auspices of the League of Nations in 1930, and discussed at Geneva at later sessions of the League, but no action was taken. The benefits of the convention, however, will not be limited to the New World, for by decision of the Supervisory Committee of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, it will be open to the adherence of any non-signatory State.

The Convention on the Nationality of Women was presented to the conference at Montevideo by the Inter-American Commission of Women, a body created by the Sixth International Conference of American States at Habana in 1928 "to prepare the juridical information necessary for a proper consideration at the Seventh Conference of the civil and political equality of women. . . ." The commission consists of one representative from each of the nations, members of the Pan American Union, under the chairmanship of Miss Doris Stevens, of the United States.

The Inter-American Commission of Women also presented to the Seventh International Conference of American States an equal rights treaty. The conference, however, deemed it unwise to approve such

a treaty because "the granting of political and civil rights within each country involves an exact knowledge of ethnic, social and cultural conditions and of deeply rooted customs, all of which cannot be acquired except after long and arduous study; such conditions differ substantially from country to country; the concession of such rights belongs exclusively to the sovereign bodies of each State and an international conference of the character of the present conference cannot impose binding obligations on these matters without curtailing the sovereign rights of the different States", but resolved to recommend "to the Governments of the Republics of America that they endeavor, so far as the peculiar circumstances of each country will conveniently permit, to establish the maximum of equality between men and women in all matters pertaining to the possession, enjoyment, and exercise of civil and political rights." The treaty was, however, signed on December 26, 1933, by the delegates of Cuba, Ecuador, Paraguay, and Uruguay. In another resolution, also passed December 16, the conference voted: "(1) To extend a vote of warm applause and profound appreciation to the Inter-American Commission of Women for the painstaking and outstanding work it has accomplished in support of the ideals which it supports, and (2) that the said commission should continue the work it has carried on so far in order that the next conference may be in possession of proposals which will enable it to put into effect the principle of equality of rights between men and women in the different jurisdictions, as recommended by the Fifth International Conference of American States." The conference also expressed the aspiration that the presidency of the Inter-American Commission of Women, during the interval between one conference and another, might rotate among representatives of the various countries which make up that commission.

Pursuant to the resolution of the Sixth Conference, the commission had prepared for the Seventh exhaustive reports summarizing and interpreting the legislation of each country dealing with the civil and political rights of women. This legislation was presented under the topics: "*Man and woman in their relations with the State*"; "*Rights and duties of husband and wife*"; "*Rights and duties of father and mother and legitimate offspring*", and "*Rights and duties of father and mother and illegitimate offspring*." Legislation is taken up point by point under the headings of "*Equality*" and "*Inequality*", thus affording an opportunity to learn in what respects women have equal rights to vote and hold office, property rights, rights of guardianship, grounds for divorce, right of engaging in a business or profession, and other civil rights. This is the first time that such a compilation has been made for the Pan American Republics, and much interesting information is thereby made available.

PANAMA: ITS LEGEND AND ROMANCE

By SAMUEL G. JAGGAR

THE history of Panama is so colorful, and so many legends are woven into its glorious past, that one can think of this country as a delicate jewelbox magically filled with an inexhaustible store of romantic tales. The credit of discovery has been conferred on Rodrigo Galván de Bastidas, who in the year 1501 reached the shores of what is now "The Bridge of the World." It is well known that Columbus visited the isthmus on his fourth voyage in 1502, but an attempt at colonization under his brother Bartolomé was a complete fiasco.

An intrepid soldier of fortune, Vasco Núñez de Balboa, arrived with Martín Fernández de Enciso in 1510. After various expeditions in which much gold was secured, Balboa set out once more, lured by an Indian story of a wealthy country to the south whose inhabitants used dishes of solid gold. He found more than gold and pearls, for on September 25, 1513, he gazed from a mountain top upon a large, calm body of water. . . . He had discovered the Pacific Ocean!

For his important discovery the King of Spain rewarded Balboa with the title of "Adelantado del Mar del Sur y Gobernador de las Provincias de Coiba y Panamá." Unfortunately, Pedrarias, a jealous governor, beheaded him in 1517, when he was but 42 years old.

Usurping the laurels of Balboa, Pedrarias set out on a journey of colonization, and on August 15, 1519, founded the city of Panama. It is sometimes stated, however, that Gaspar de Espinosa had founded the city two years before; or that Pedrarias and Espinosa founded the city jointly. There are several anecdotes in connection with the name of Panama. One relates that Pedrarias and his men saw so many beautiful multicolored butterflies that they called the new city Panama, meaning in the Indian language "Land of Butterflies." Still another story tells us that this was the name of a wealthy and powerful cacique, but the accepted interpretation is that Panama means "The Land Abundant in Fish."

The city of Panama prospered so much and so rapidly that it became one of Spain's most prized possessions; every stream in the country showed the color of gold, and immense amounts of precious metals from South America were transshipped by mule train across the isthmus en route to Spain. Panama in its heyday was the greatest gold and silver center in the world, and consequently it became the prey of sea rovers, freebooters, buccaneers, and pirates. Among

some of the notorious buccaneers to attack Panama were Sir Francis Drake, that indomitable and fearless English sailor, John Oxenham, William Parker, and François Lolonnois.

It was left to the pirate Morgan to carry complete destruction to Panama; assembling at a rendezvous in Haiti an armada of 37 ships manned by buccaneers and desperadoes, he arrived on the shores of the isthmus in the year 1671 and with courage and daring moved on the city of Panama with his followers. The vicissitudes encountered by Morgan were many and the casualties in his ranks reached



Photograph by Ellsworth P. Killip.

MONUMENT TO BALBOA.

A handsome monument to the discoverer of the Pacific Ocean stands in the city of Panama. The coins of the Republic also bear his name and likeness.

alarming proportions, but these reverses served only to spur him on and increase his thirst for gold and blood. Finding that many of the inhabitants had fled, taking the women and leaving their wealth buried in secret underground passages, Morgan's rage was not appeased until he had taken what plunder remained and, according to some accounts, set fire to the city. Others say that the Spaniards themselves burned it to prevent its falling into his hands.

On January 21, 1675, the bishop marked with a cross the site in the new city of Panama on which the cathedral now stands. The city

reflects Hispano-Moresque ideas. Along the sea is a great wall with a moat, which at that time was intended to make the new city "pirate-proof."

The city of today is one of the most delightful and alluring in the tropics. It may be called a miniature Sevilla, for its houses with overhanging balconies filled with flowers, its narrow and winding streets, its warm sunny days and cool nights, and the attitude of the people—that life must be thoroughly enjoyed—are the legacies of the mother country, Spain.

If we travel south on the main thoroughfare, the Avenida Central, we see numerous Chinese and Japanese silk shops. The slant-eyed sons of the Orient are keen business men, and they display the most expensive and beautiful importations from all the far corners of our globe. On either side of the avenue we see fine concrete buildings having large porticos on the ground floor, and Venetian blinds through which charming señoritas may look down from the upper stories into the street but be safe from all strange eyes.

The principal market at the foot of Salsipuedes—a steep street whose name means "Get Out If You Can"—is one of the most delightful places to observe the throbbing life of Panama. Here we see maids and cooks bargaining with a native, a Hindu or Chinaman for a chicken or some vegetables, or perhaps a bunch of beautiful flowers. The market is of concrete and very spacious, but a number of traders deal in the open air under improvised awnings of all colors, shapes, and sizes. The people move quickly, there is much talking, and one is reminded of a toy kaleidoscope with pieces of colored glass.

Churches abound in the city of Panama, and have a particular fascination. The colonial church of Santa Ana is of rare charm; its great wooden doors seem to be forever inviting the passer-by to enter and rest from the day's heat. It is on the Plaza de Santa Ana that on Thursday nights a band plays piquant Latin music while the high heels of the señoritas, as they promenade in a circle around the plaza, click on the sidewalk tiles laid in arabesque designs. From the hotels across the street one hears the chattering of *tertulianos* and the sweet strains of a string orchestra; the lights from the Variedades theater shine upon the scene.

The cathedral, which is approximately 200 feet long, has one main and four side aisles. Its two Moorish towers are imposing, and on close observation we find that in the façade are twelve niches with images of the apostles. The roof is made from the beautiful native cedar; but the proudest possession of the cathedral is a painting of the Virgin of the Rosary by the world-famous artist Murillo.

Not far from the cathedral is the picturesque sea-wall known as *Las Bóvedas* (The Vaults), underneath which are dungeons formerly used as cells. They bring to mind a picture of the prison of the

Count of Monte Cristo. On nights when the moon is bright this wall is the favorite place for lovers' trysts.

The Panamanians are born lovers of *deleite*. They know how thoroughly to enjoy a good time, they are extremely courteous and hospitable to strangers, and their fiestas and carnivals held during the month of February are never-to-be-forgotten events. At night the balconies are crowded with people, and from the side streets occasionally one hears the tremolo of a mandolin accompanied by the melancholy tones of the guitar. The latter is beloved of Spaniard and Spanish



Photograph by the U.S. Bureau of Public Roads.

RUINED CATHEDRAL TOWER.

On the edge of the sea stands this massive tower, part of the remains of old Panama, which was founded in 1519 and destroyed in 1671 at the time of Morgan's famous raid.

American because of its adaptability to the accompaniment of serenades and folk songs.

During the carnival season the señoritas think of nothing but their *polleras*. The *pollera*, the typical festive attire of the women in Panama, consists of a tight bodice with a deep bertha and full, long skirts. The women spend much money in making artificial flowers of gold, silver, and other expensive materials to wear in their hair as part of the costume.

Toldos, or wooden platforms about fifteen feet square, roofed with palm leaves and flowers, are erected on side streets. From these *toldos* small string and tom-tom orchestras impregnate the air with



MUNICIPAL BUILDING, PANAMA.

The old Cabildo formerly occupied this site. At the left is seen a glimpse of balconied houses.

rhythm and melody, while the señoritas in their gay *polleras* take turns dancing the famous *tambor* with their merry escorts. After the *tambor* the dancers adjourn to the *mesas*, or open-air restaurants, where they eat delicious *bollos-changos*, *carimanolas*, *tamales* and other highly seasoned and delightful native dishes.

On the balconies is lived the life of the Panamanians when night creeps in. Here they discuss the events of the day, politics, María's new dress, here they sing and play, drink *chicha*, and even select—aided by superstition—a lucky lottery number. These *tertulias*, or gatherings of intimate friends, are the very essence of Isthmian life.

The Panamanians have a progressive educational system and a high regard for cultural attainments. As marks of evidence stand the Instituto Nacional, one of the finest educational edifices in Central America, the National Theater and numerous other municipal buildings. The Panama Canal has been the chief factor in the material progress of the people of Panama.

Visitors leave reluctantly, always hoping that they may in the future visit once more this paradise of the tropics, on which the Southern Cross forever twinkles.

PAN AMERICAN DAY, 1934

THE fourth Pan American Day, April 14th, 1934, was widely commemorated throughout the Americas by government officials, educational institutions, Rotary Clubs and other organizations which gave expression to the sentiments of friendship and brotherhood which the nations of this great continent cherish for each other.

A wide variety in the programs celebrating this occasion is evidence of the interest with which each city or institution approached the celebration. Addresses, pageants, luncheons, recitations, dances, and especially music, all had their place on the programs of the day and all played their part in emphasizing at once the individuality and the kinship of the Pan American Republics. Broadcasting took a more prominent part than heretofore, notably in Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Birmingham, Phoenix, Buenos Aires, Chihuahua, Pará, Rio de Janeiro, and Lima were among the cities in which the Rotary Club organized luncheon meetings. In the last two the Pan American diplomatic corps was invited to be present, and ambassadors and ministers were the speakers of the occasion. Indeed, the diplomatic corps in many of the capitals joined in the commemoration of the day. Three Latin American members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and of the diplomatic corps in Washington made addresses outside the capital: The Minister of Panama, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, spoke at Ohio State University, Columbus; the Minister of Uruguay, Señor Don José Richling, before the Pan American Society and the College of the City of New York; and the Minister of Costa Rica, Señor Don Manuel González Zeledón, at Goucher College, Baltimore. Dr. Luis Churión, counselor of the Venezuelan Legation, also spoke at Goucher College.

A unique observance was arranged in Chile by Normal School No. 1 in Santiago, and in the United States by Knox College, which celebrated not Pan American Day, but Pan American Week. In Chile the celebration culminated in a fiesta given in the auditorium of the school. On this occasion the students sent greetings to their colleagues throughout the Americas. Twenty members of the graduating class spoke in as many primary schools on American subjects.

Hon. Santiago Iglesias, Resident Commissioner of Puerto Rico, spoke in the House of Representatives of the United States on the significance of the day.

The address of Secretary Hull, delivered at the Pan American Day concert at the Pan American Union and broadcast from there, was

printed in full in the June issue of the BULLETIN. In commenting upon it *La Nación* of Buenos Aires said:

On the occasion of the celebration of Pan American Day last Saturday, the Secretary of State of the United States gave in the Pan American Union an address which was interesting for many reasons. Mr. Hull, in pointing out the character of this celebration, which with the years is becoming a more and more concrete expression of continental fraternity, emphasized particularly the importance of cultural ties between the American nations. He was optimistic about this. What has been accomplished in the last decades has brought about a deeper mutual comprehension between all the republics of this continent, and the time is not far distant when geographic unity will be reflected in a certain characteristic intellectual quality, the result of the contacts and interchange between the countries. But as the Secretary of State very justly said, a community of purposes and ideals, although it arises from similar origins, analogous development, and proximity, will not become a reality unless it has moral force. Only when the various republics of the continent, now that they have attained national consciousness, also come to understand that they are integral parts of an American civilization, will Pan American Day, instead of celebrating an aspiration, commemorate a realization. And this recognition of subordination to a new culture, the mutation of occidental civilization which American civilization will be, can be achieved only by closer intellectual bonds between all the nations of the New World. The task is relatively easy, since fortunately there is no great difference of language, no insuperable racial antagonism, no deep historical grudge. It is only necessary for two Americans, no matter where they live, to come into contact with each other for understanding to flower naturally between them. To understand each other we need only to know each other.

Therefore, it is impossible to place too much emphasis on the decisive part played by institutions of learning in this slow formation of an American culture. To orient instruction toward this great hope is one of the duties of educators throughout the continent. Mr. Hull has reminded the school and university officials of the United States of this moral obligation. His words will surely be heeded, since they express the aspiration, which grows stronger every day, for a fuller knowledge of each other and for a sincere understanding.

The universities of Washington, in harmony with this sentiment, invited various speakers to address them. Senhor Paulo G. Hassloch, commercial attaché of the Brazilian Embassy, spoke at the George Washington University; Señor Enrique Coronado Suárez, assistant editor of the *BOLETÍN de la Unión Panamericana*, at the American University; and Dr. J. de S. Coutinho at the Catholic University. Several of the high schools were addressed by members of the Pan American Union staff, and others spoke in different cities.

In the city of New York the Pan American Society, jointly with the Council of Inter-American Relations, celebrated the day in the auditorium of the College of the City of New York. The speakers were the Hon. José Richling, Minister of Uruguay in the United States, Mr. James S. Carson, President of the Council of Inter-American Relations, Mr. John L. Merrill, president of the Pan American Society and Mr. David Schor, president of the Pan American Student League. A series of tableaux was presented by the

students in secondary schools who are members of the league and the flags of the American Republics were unfurled to the strains of their respective national anthems.

The following message from the President of the United States was read by the president of the Pan American Society:

The President of the United States by proclamation issued on May 28th, 1930, designated April 14th as "Pan American Day" and called upon the people of the United States generally to observe the day with appropriate ceremonies. The action of the President was taken pursuant to a resolution adopted by the governing board of the Pan American Union, composed of the Secretary of State of the United States, as chairman, and the diplomatic representatives of the other American Republics accredited at Washington, recommending that April 14th be observed as "Pan American Day" in all the Republics of the American continent. Presidents of the American Republics have also designated the day.

April 14th marks the date on which the resolution creating the International Bureau of American Republics (now the Pan American Union) was adopted at the First Pan American Conference held in Washington in 1889-90.

Other programs were carried out in New York by the Pan American clubs of the high schools. These clubs are active in familiarizing their members with the development and customs of the other American Republics.

In Philadelphia, the foreign trade committee of the Chamber of Commerce gave a luncheon in honor of the consuls of the Latin American Republics to which guests prominent in banking and business life were also invited. Cablegrams of greetings were sent to the presidents of all the American Republics and cordial responses were received.

Through many years Philadelphia has had an interesting connection with the southern Republics in diplomacy, trade, and culture. Some of these ties were described by Philip H. Gadsden, president of the Chamber of Commerce, who spoke in part as follows:

Philadelphia long has been a real neighbor to the Latin-American Republics. It was the first of our cities of the United States to make contacts with these countries, and it still has the widest possible contacts with them. As an indication of this we are connected with these countries by 13 ship lines, 9 of which serve the east coast, and 4 of which serve the west coast of Central and South America. Our trade with your countries is of a very sizeable character. In a normal year we import from your countries about sixty million dollars worth of goods and raw materials, and we send to your countries more than twelve million dollars worth.

Our educational institutions for generations have trained your young men and women, and many of your own great institutions, especially those of a technical character, obtained their inspiration and their trained leaders from the institutions of this city. We are a sentimental and social-minded people in Philadelphia, and we hold in high regard our old friends and associates, whether individuals or nations. Every year our foreign trade committee group meets on July 14 at old St. Mary's Catholic Church to pay tribute to Manuel Torres, the great Latin-American patriot and leader, whose body lies in this historic churchyard. Torres was the first Latin-American minister to be received by the American

Government back in the infant days of this Republic; he lived in this city from 1796 till his death in 1822.

In September 1798, the Philadelphia ship *John* arrived at Montevideo, in what is now Uruguay, being the first United States ship to go to that country. As early as 1800 there were Philadelphia-built and -owned ships in Brazil, and in 1798 Hipólito José da Costa Pereira arrived in Philadelphia as an emissary from the Portuguese colonial administration in Brazil. He remained in Philadelphia a year, being welcomed by John Adams, as this city then was the national capital. By the year 1810 at least 20 Philadelphia vessels had been to Buenos Aires and Montevideo, and at least 10 to Brazil, while some of Stephen Girard's ships had gone around Cape Horn to the west coast. As far back as 1801 the educational movement of Latin Americans to Philadelphia began when the great Liberator, Simón Bolívar, sent his nephew Fernando to Germantown Academy in this city.

The first railroad in South America was built in Chile in 1851; the locomotives were built in this city by Matthias Baldwin, and the machine tools used in constructing the road were supplied by William Sellers and Company of Philadelphia.

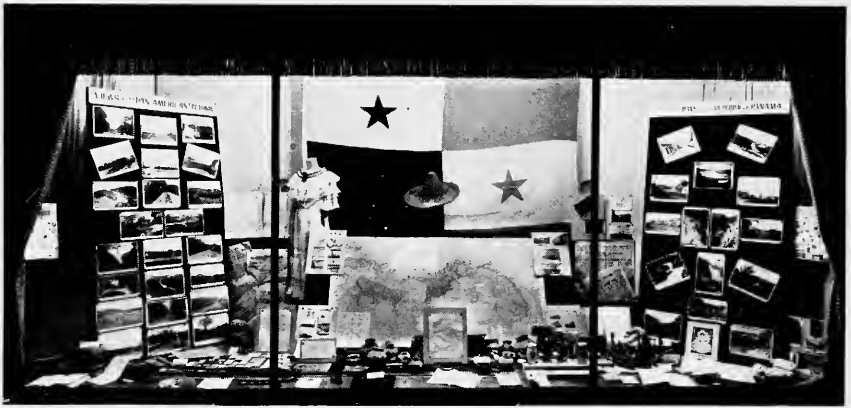
So it has gone down through the generations, with this city growing closer to its Latin American neighbors, and it is in this spirit of friendship and old association that I welcome the representatives of these governments today and open this ceremony in honor of Pan American Day.

In San Francisco the local chapter of the Pan American Society gave a luncheon to a group of distinguished guests. The speaker of the day was Dr. Francisco Machón Vilanova, consul of El Salvador, who referred enthusiastically to the beneficial results of the numerous Pan American conferences and congresses beginning with that convoked by Bolívar and held in Panama in 1826.

The city of Miami, because of its nearness to Cuba and other sister republics, has always taken a keen interest in Pan American Day. For several years pageants written by Dr. Barbara Ring have been given. Since the subject of the pageant this year was *Cuba Libre*, the Mayor of Miami officially invited the Government of Cuba to participate in the celebration. The Government graciously accepted this invitation and sent soldiers and sailors, army and navy bands, and a selected group of official representatives including Dr. Jorge Mañach, the then Secretary of Education, who was the special representative of the President. A parade organized by the Knights of Columbus and representing the landing of Columbus on the Island of Cuba, a luncheon in honor of the Cuban and other Latin American officials who were the guests of the city, and a military and naval parade preceded the evening presentation of the pageant, which was attended by thousands of people. As in former years, the University of Miami held exercises; Dr. Oscar Morales, in the name of the Cuban Government, presented to the university a portrait of the patriot José Martí.

Among the other educational institutions which had Pan American Day programs was the University of Arizona. President Homer LeRoy Shantz presided at the meeting and addresses were made by

the Hon. José Torres E., consul of Mexico in Tucson, and by Dr. Frances Douglas De Kalb. The latter's subject was *Benito Juárez, Mexican patriot*. Dr. Samuel Guy Inman spoke at Hunter College, New York. Two radio programs arranged by the University of Wisconsin consisted of Latin American songs, poetry, and an address by Professor Eduardo Neale Silva. At the University of Illinois Dr. W. S. Robertson presided at the meeting and addresses were made by Dr. Armando Novelli, of the Universities of Buenos Aires and La Plata, Professor John Van Horne, and others. The State Convention of the Pan American Student Forum took place at the University of Oklahoma, lasting two days. St. Mary's College at Notre Dame, Macalester College at St. Paul, and the University of Missouri, as well as many high schools scattered throughout the country, also reported their observance of the day.



Courtesy of Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro.

PANAMANIAN EXHIBIT IN MIAMI.

Articles from the Republic of Panama were attractively exhibited in the city of Miami on the occasion of Pan American Day, thanks to the Honorable B. Howard Brown, Consul of Panama in that city.

The Los Angeles city schools gave interesting programs, including various addresses, songs, dances, and a pageant in which each Pan American Republic was represented by a student bearing a flag and was accompanied by a group representing the principal products of the country in question. In another school a different pageant was given in which students wearing the Indian costumes of the various American countries presented to the Mother of Nations a gift representative of the respective country, such as sugar for Cuba, coffee for Colombia, rubber for Brazil, copper and nitrate for Chile, tin for Bolivia, and so on. A boy in one of the Los Angeles schools wrote the Pan American Union as follows:

We the A6 class and our teacher Mrs. Cornett thank you for the material you sent us. I want to tell you that the Pan American Program we had was very good. Every teacher sent us notes telling us it was very good and thanking us for

inviting them to our program. I am sorry you couldn't come to see it. I know you would like to know how we did it. So I am telling you. The flags looked beautiful and added a lot to our program. I am sending you a copy of the program.

The Argentine Ministry of Justice and Public Instruction, the National University of Buenos Aires, and the National Council of Education arranged that the institutions under their jurisdiction should participate in the celebration of the day. At the dinner given by the Argentine Chamber of Commerce an address was made by Dr. Tomás Amadeo, a distinguished sociologist and economist. At the meeting held by the Sociedad Luz, its president, Dr. Angel L. Giménez, spoke of the principles of union which should prevail among all nations and the necessity of destroying the economic and political barriers which separate the American nations from each other. The society rose in tribute to Horace Mann and to the American teachers who went to Argentina during the administration of President Sarmiento and who are warmly remembered for their services in establishing and extending the Argentine public-school system. The meeting closed with a message sent by the members of the society to the Pan American Union and the workers of America, a message which expressed the desire for universal disarmament and peace among the American nations.

In Buenos Aires the Argentine-American Cultural Institute took a leading part in the celebration; the National Council of Women, the Y.W.C.A., and many teachers also cooperated. The Institute's program began with an eloquent address by Dr. Alfredo Colmo, President of the Institute, who praised the celebration of Pan American Day as conducing to closer and more intelligent relations between the American Republics. He referred in a complimentary fashion to the work of the Pan American Union, especially in connection with the new duties entrusted to it by each succeeding Conference of International States.

Brazil, the largest of American Republics in continental area and the second in population, has always observed Pan American Day with especial enthusiasm, not only because the resolution creating Pan American Day four years ago was introduced at a meeting of the Governing Board by her representative but also because she has long cherished national traditions in harmony with the ideals of Pan Americanism, obligatory arbitration having been written into her Constitution. The National Federation of Educational Societies has usually taken the initiative in organizing the celebration of the day. Through its member institution, "Peace Through the School", it arranged a program given at the University of Rio de Janeiro under the chairmanship of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Felix Cavalcanti de Lacerda, who gave the opening address. He was followed

by Professor João Marques dos Reis. The second part of the program consisted of a symphony concert of Brazilian music rendered by the orchestra of the National Institute of Music.

The Federation of Educational Societies sent to the Pan American Union an interesting collection of albums prepared by school children in various parts of Brazil as part of the Pan American Day celebration; they contained pictures and other attractive material and were distributed to schools in the United States.

The Rotary Club of Rio de Janeiro gave a luncheon to the Pan American diplomatic corps at which the eloquent Ambassador of Mexico, Señor Alfonso Reyes, made the principal address. Señor Reyes is well known as one of the leading literary figures of Spanish America.

The Brazilian Federation for the Advancement of Women took advantage of Pan American Day to open its new section of intellectual cooperation. Dona Bertha Lutz, a technical adviser to the Brazilian delegation to the Montevideo Conference and one of the leading feminists of Brazil, gave a short address, and Senhora Rosalina Coelho Lisboa, a poet whose works are much admired, made a glowing plea for peace.

From the Indian school of Warisata, Bolivia, the Pan American Union received an interesting message printed on the occasion of Pan American Day. This school is situated in a village about 60 miles from La Paz in a region inhabited almost entirely by Indians. The message gives a detailed account of the activities of the school and ends with an appeal to those interested in the lot of the indigenous races. "The Indian population from Mexico to Chile has been estimated at sixty million. . . . The Pan American Day which is celebrated in schools like ours must be the day in which history has fulfilled itself and the Indian occupies an honorable place in the social fabric of the nations."

In Colombia the Academy of History of Antioquia in the city of Medellín held a special session to celebrate Pan American Day. Its president, Dr. Emilio Robledo, addressed the assembly on the significance to the American nations of their pursuit of common ideals in order to realize the great dream of the Liberator Simón Bolívar. "Certainly nothing could be more impressive than to behold united with strong intellectual, economic, and moral bonds the nations which stretch from the shores of the Hudson to the tip of Cape Horn. Worthy of the noblest efforts is the task of men who have devoted their most persistent labors to allaying old fears until the Americas attain a spiritual disarmament and peace founded on mutual respect and inspired in justice."

Another celebration in Colombia was that of the ancient Colegio Mompós in the Department of Santander. The students paraded

through the city with flags and placed wreaths at the foot of the statue of Bolívar. The principal cabled greetings to the Pan American Union in the name of the school.

Although as in former years the Republic of Cuba had planned an official observance of Pan American Day and, in fact, the President had arranged that the celebration should take place in his palace before the diplomatic and consular corps and the cabinet, it was necessary at the last moment to suspend the ceremony because of official mourning for the death of Alfredo Zayas, ex-President of Cuba. In other cities, however, the celebration which had been planned took place. In Ciego de Ávila, at a meeting under the auspices of the Rotary Club, the national hymn was played, the mayor spoke, a group of children sang a Pan American hymn, and twenty-one girls recited the sonnets written in honor of the American republics by the poet Alfonso Camín.

The public schools of the city of Quito, Ecuador, joined in a festival on April 14th. Among the numbers of the program were a dramatization called *American Ideals*, recitations of poems from the other American countries, the singing of a Pan American hymn and the *Hymn of the American Child*, a *Dance of Peace*, and Mexican and Argentine dances. This fiesta, attended by members of the diplomatic and consular corps, was under the patronage of the vice president of the City Council.

One of the celebrations in Guatemala took place in Cobán. The students in the school sent to the Pan American Union an album of Pan American Day thoughts each signed by its author. One of them reads: "When republics manifest their affection in deeds they become truly members of one family."

The Rotary Club of Sonsonate in El Salvador commemorated the day with a special meeting.

The Agrupación Cultural de Acción Social, whose membership consists of presidents and past presidents of the learned societies of Mexico, devoted its monthly meeting to the observance of Pan American Day, at the suggestion of the Mexican Commission of Intellectual Cooperation. At the close of the luncheon the Minister of Peru, Señor Rafael Belaúnde, made an enlightening address on the Indian problem in Peru in which, after sketching the geographical and historical background, he discussed the measures which are being taken for the educational, economic, and social betterment of the indigenous population. He was followed by Señor Galindo y Villa, a well-known historian and professor at the University of Mexico, who paid a tribute to the excellent relations which have always existed between Peru and Mexico. The meeting was closed by an address delivered by Dr. Alfonso Pruneda, president of the Mexican Commission of Intellectual Cooperation, who emphasized the various

aspects of Pan Americanism, drew attention to the influence of the Seventh International Conference of American States in promoting cordial relations between the American Republics and in furthering intellectual cooperation between them, and invited all those present to strive for the strengthening of Inter-American friendship through closer relations between learned bodies throughout the New World.

At the request of the Commission, the Secretary of Public Education asked all schools under his jurisdiction to take part in the celebration of Pan American Day. Many of them followed his suggestion, arranging programs which suited local conditions. For instance, in Cuernavaca, a picturesque city popular with Mexican and American visitors, a civic celebration which the whole town enjoyed was arranged. The principal features of the program consisted of a parade of more than 2,000 children and teachers divided into twenty-one groups, each representing an American Republic and carrying the flag of the country which it represented. The parade was headed by a band and reviewed by the Governor of the State. After it was over, a program of music, dances, recitations, and addresses was presented under the arcades of the City Hall. The invitation to this ceremony was headed with the following words: "Bolívar's ideal is being realized. The brotherhood of the nations of this Continent must become a fact."

The Director General of Education for the State of Coahuila sent to the Pan American Union a set of more than seventy programs arranged by various schools under his supervision.

In the Colegio Internacional, Asunción, Paraguay, especial mention was made of the millions of students who in common accord on Pan American Day paused from their daily tasks to think of the relation of their nations' destinies to the future of the Continent. The speaker, Dr. César A. Vasconcellos, said that the ceremonies of the day expressed the mystic sentiment of continental union, first noted in the colonial period, strengthened at the beginning of independence, and later embodied in international congresses and conferences whose common purpose is to facilitate international intercourse. There is no barrier, said the speaker, which will give pause to youthful spirits when they have been nourished on generous sentiments and noble ideals.

Another Rotary Club which celebrated Pan American Day was that in Lima. Its meeting on this day was given much importance by the caliber of the guests, who included the Pan American diplomatic corps and Dr. Alfredo Solís y Muró, Minister of Finance and chief of the Peruvian delegation to the Seventh International Conference of American States. The speaker, Señor Ricardo Rivera Schreiber, mentioned the added impulse given to inter-American Cooperation by the participation of the United States in this movement towards the close of the nineteenth century. He reminded his audience of

the fruitful labors of the Montevideo Conference and of the fact that the Americans have always been interested in promoting the reign of international law. The Ambassador of Argentina added that the beautiful sentiments of Pan Americanism should be supported by deeds which would give eloquent expression to the approximation of the American nations.

Another well arranged program in Lima was that given over the radio station OA4B and arranged by Señor Jorge Vargas Escalante. An address by Dr. Oscar Miró Quesada on Pan Americanism, national and other American music, addresses by the Ambassador of the United States, Honorable Fred A. Dearing, and the representative of Mexico, Licenciado Juan Manuel Álvarez del Castillo added to the



PAN AMERICAN DAY IN PERU.

The Peruvian Junior Red Cross organized the exercises held at a public school in Lima.

interest of the program. Señor J. Carlos Salas y Perales in the name of Peruvian Rotarians called upon Rotarians throughout the continent to bring about union between nations through their sentiments of peace and friendship. The importance of tourism as a means of acquaintance was emphasized by Señor Eduardo Dibós Dammert, President of the Touring Club Peruano. Many other ceremonies took place throughout Peru.

A good radio program was also broadcast from the official station CX6 in Montevideo. It included an address by Señor Orestes Baroffio and a program of musical selections from the Pan American Republics. The radio station CX4 of the Agricultural Bureau likewise sent out an excellent program.

Dr. Pedro R. Tinoco, Minister of the Interior of Venezuela, ordered the national flag flown on all public buildings in honor of Pan American Day, requested the schools to hold appropriate exercises and asked for the cooperation of public authorities. Schools throughout the Republic complied with the request of the Minister of the Interior and celebrated the Day in many interesting ways. The Academy of History held a special session, which was addressed by its president, Dr. José Santiago Rodríguez, on the subject of Pan Americanism. The Ateneo of Caracas also arranged a meeting, which was attended by the diplomatic corps. A feature of the evening was the Pan American music rendered by members of Caracas society. The program was broadcast throughout the Americas and to Europe by Broadcasting Caracas and station YVQ of Maracay. The Broadcasting Caracas also arranged and transmitted an excellent program of its own.

Throughout the continent the press devoted editorials to the occasion, well summarized in the following quotation from *El Demócrata*, of Mazatlán, Mexico: "To create an atmosphere of loyal harmony and encourage the spirit of cooperation between the nations of this hemisphere is to march forward in the spirit of progress."



SOME LESSER-KNOWN COMMODITIES OF COMMERCE ¹

III

By WILLIAM A. REID

Foreign Trade Adviser, Pan American Union

BY attributing personality to a common edible nut of the United States, business men have enormously increased the sales of all kinds of nuts. The "Mr. Peanut" shops that have become prominent in our business centers are expanding the consumption of the peanut and are lending a helping hand to the further sale of various nuts from the other Americas.

Enter anyone of "Mr. Peanut's" domains and see the "friends" from Latin America that are selling themselves to millions of customers. Here we find the Brazil nut fresh from the fastnesses of the Amazon, its adamantine outer shell opened so that the customer may see how wonderfully nature has placed the individual nuts within the sphere, which looks like a cannon ball. It is said that no one has ever solved the puzzle of replacing them in a like space. There are also piles of hulled Brazil nuts, some coated with chocolate; all are arranged attractively in order to catch attention.

The coming of this delicious edible from the jungles of Brazil to the shops in United States cities is a long and interesting story. Suffice it to say here that the Brazil nut tree grows to a dizzy height and that the fruit forms among the topmost branches. When the mature balls fall to the ground they are encased in a soft outer shell which, when green, easily yields to the machete of the gatherer. The latter, with a dexterity acquired after long practice, thrusts the knife into the hull and throws the hull over his shoulder. A big open basket attached to the man's neck and waist receives the nuts; and when a dozen or more lots are thus collected the worker walks to a central place and by a rather profound bow discharges the basket. Again and again this method is repeated until the gatherers have assembled large piles. Human labor also serves to transport the nuts, outer hulls removed, to some river landing where other men load them aboard boats for the trip to market—possibly to Manaos, Santorem, or some other port on the Amazon where ocean ships receive cargo for distant lands.

¹ See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, October 1933, for the first article in this series. It discussed oil of petit-grain, casein, carnauba wax, divi-divi, quebracho, guayule, yerba maté and shark-liver oil. For the second article see BULLETIN for April 1934. It discussed chicle, tagua, coca, the babassú nut, monazite sand and quinine.



Courtesy of the Tea and Coffee Trade Journal.

THE BRAZIL NUT TREE.

Another Brazilian product of the wilds which has joined the "Mr. Peanut" propaganda is the cashew nut. Poisonous in its raw and unshelled form, it becomes delicious after being roasted. "How do you find the sale of cashew nuts compared with that of those better-known products, peanuts and almonds?" a salesman in one of the shops was asked. "Cashew nuts", said he, "are very popular with customers and their sales are constantly increasing. Other 'Mr. Peanut' stores are being opened in United States cities and it follows as a corollary that the Brazilian cashew nuts are destined to be as popular in new communities as they are in eastern cities. It is certainly one of our best sellers."

The cashew tree is a relative of the sumac; it is native to tropical America but Brazil is at present more active than her neighbors in gathering and marketing the product. The nut is attached to the lower end of a pear-shaped fleshy fruit; the outer shell is kidney-shaped and the nut within is of the same form, the latter being considerably larger than a shelled peanut. To make the cashew nut edible it is removed from its caustic oily shell and thoroughly roasted. The fruit makes a delicious preserve. The oil obtained from the nut is nondrying and has an iodine content of 84 percent.



Courtesy of the Botanical Gazette, Chicago.

BRAZIL NUTS.

The hull has been cut to show the nuts in place.

This mechanical age demands oils, increased quantities not only of well-known varieties but of the lesser known. Such products are now coming from what formerly were unknown sources. One of these newer oils is that derived from the cohune nut, which is so hard to open that its properties were not until recent years extensively utilized by man. With the invention of nut-cracking machines and modern extraction methods, the cohune nut has been compelled to yield its treasure.

The cohune tree grows wild in the American tropics and, so far as we now know, is most plentiful in Honduras, Guatemala, Mexico, and Panama. It reminds one of the banana plant (which is not

properly a tree), although it is larger and has more branches. Another resemblance is that the cohune nuts form in large oblong clusters about the size of a banana "stem." They weight 75 or more pounds and there may be four or five clusters on a single tree. The fronds on which the cluster is produced bend down with their burden of gradually maturing nuts; by ripening time the bunches are not far above a man's head, thus rendering the harvesting comparatively easy labor.

A pile of these nuts, gathered on one of the writer's trips and now before him, shows them in various sizes. Some of the shelled ones are about 1½ inches long, others are from 2 to 3 inches in length. On sawing open the hard shell one finds the actual nut to be about double the size of a woman's thumb and extremely rich in oil content. This kernel has the appearance of the common potato, but if one cuts off a slice with a knife oil oozes out freely at the pressure of a finger.



CASHEWS.

Note the peculiar manner in which the seed or nut is attached to the fruit.

Some persons have applied the phrase "light of the jungle" to this kernel because if lighted it will burn for a considerable time. In backward settlements in Central America one sees it thus put to use. A heavy wire or pointed stick is stuck into the kernel and the other end into the ground, a match applied, and the "light of the jungle" is giving man a worthy service.

But far greater usefulness awaits the cohune nut. It is that of supplying oil in commercial quantities. Every year the cohune is exported from Central America to the United States and to Europe. But in 1933 a company was formed in Washington for the purpose of establishing in Costa Rica a business of buying the nut from dealers and native gatherers. Machinery was purchased and the management sent representatives to the field. No reports are yet available that this company has begun operations but it is presumed that the initial stages have been passed and that an actual output of cohune oil will be forthcoming.



THE COHUNE PALM.

That mythical monster, the dragon, seems to have exerted its hypnotic influence on people and nations for centuries. The flag of China long bore the emblem of the dragon, and religious and political processions were not complete without the form of this fire-breathing creature. No wonder then that *dragon's blood* has been alternately revered and cursed down the ages as possessing magical and super-human powers.

But the dragon's blood of the enlightened people of today is simply a valuable product that finds its greatest service in the marts of trade.

Dragon's blood is used today in the making of paints and varnishes, in the engraving industry, in the coloring of paper and for various other commercial purposes. As these lines are written there stands before the author a large bottle of this so-called "blood." It has just arrived in Washington from the jungles of equatorial America—to be particular, from the Republic of Ecuador. Because of its rich red color and its consistency the resemblance to human blood is pronounced; no stretch of the imagination is needed to associate this substance with the blood of man.

But *Sangre de Drago*, as the Ecuadoreans call this product, comes from a tree—a tree that grows wild in that country and in other parts of the tropics. The growth varies greatly, according to Professor Samuel J. Record; some of the older trees are among the largest found in the forest, but so far the lumber itself is not utilized. Leaves are pinnate and blossoms are mostly yellow, while the pods, in which one or two seeds form, do not open by themselves. The value of the tree, however, lies largely in its bark, which when cut exudes a blood-colored juice. This when exposed to the air hardens into a resin. If one is familiar with the gathering of the sap from the maple tree or of turpentine from the pine it is easy to understand how the Ecuadoreans tap the palm that exudes this ever-needed product.

There are numerous species of palm that give forth dragon's blood, such as *Croton draco*, *Dracaena draco*, and *Calamus draco* and others. These trees are supposed to have originated in the East Indies, and it is from the Far East that in past years this peculiar product has come to Europe and to the United States. Some species of the tree bear fruit resembling the ordinary cherry which also exudes a resinous substance. The latter is collected and boiled. From the hot liquid the resin is obtained; it is then cooled and molded into sticks or cakes. The latex so far gathered in Ecuador, however, is extracted from the body of the tree as the rather thick liquid already mentioned. Ecuadoreans report a plentiful supply of trees from which the product is obtained, and they wish to find larger markets in the United States, an outlet that seems assured as soon as manufacturers of this country become more familiar with the Ecuadorean raw material.

THE MEXICAN AGRARIAN CODE

By GUILLERMO A. SURO

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

IN accordance with Mexico's Six-Year Plan President Rodríguez has issued an agrarian code which not only unifies existing legislation but substantially amends it.¹ The Six-Year Plan states that the distribution of land and improvements in its use continue to constitute Mexico's most important social problem and that the only limit to the process of giving land to the landless will be the complete satisfaction of the agrarian needs of all the peasants.² To this end it proposes to speed up the dotation and restitution of land to the villages by increasing the appropriation and personnel to execute this work, simplifying the procedure to the utmost, making permanent all provisional land grants, and eliminating the legal difficulties which prevent certain population groups from enjoying the benefits of agrarian legislation. In carrying out this program an autonomous Agrarian Bureau, directly under the Executive, has been created to enforce the agrarian laws, with an appropriation of 4,000,000 pesos, representing an increase of more than 80 percent over the resources previously available for administration and enforcement.

Although the code embodies only the legislation dealing with the grant of land to villages, the Six-Year Plan also considers other phases of the agrarian reform program and places special emphasis on speeding up the division of large private estates as prescribed in the Constitution; the redistribution of the rural population; the colonization of the interior with Mexican citizens; the strict enforcement of the Idle Lands Law, permitting the Government to grant farmers the use of lands not cultivated by their owners; the improvement of methods of cultivation; an increase in the resources and facilities of the agricultural credit system; an increase in the number of irrigation systems now in existence; and the promotion of stock raising.

The source of the legislation embodied in the code—the so-called “ejido” legislation—as well as of that relating to other phases of the agrarian reform, is to be found in two well-known documents of the Revolution: The Decree of January 6, 1915, and Article 27 of the Mexican Constitution of 1917. The former nullified all acts by which communal lands, forests, and waters had been illegally occupied, and restored title to such holdings to the villages concerned. Where restitution was impossible because of faulty titles or for any other reason,

¹ Código Agrario de los Estados Unidos Mexicanos, *Diario Oficial*, Apr. 12, 1934.

² See “Mexico's Six-Year Plan”, by Guillermo A. Suro, *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, April 1934.

the villages were to be given what they needed by outright grant of lands expropriated from neighboring properties by the Government. The decree also provided that a regulatory law should determine the manner in which the lands thus granted in corporate ownership should be divided among the inhabitants, who in the meantime were to enjoy the possession of them in common. These principles were approved, incorporated, and developed in Article 27 of the Constitution.

Since the enactment of the Constitution of 1917 some 50 laws and decrees have been issued through which the Government has sought to make these principles effective. It has been a long process of experimentation; when the amendments and additions to an agrarian law became too cumbersome and confusing, a new law would be issued containing all previous modifications and such new principles as seemed appropriate. The new code is the result of this process. It embodies several agrarian laws: On Dotation and Restitution of Lands and Waters, the Distribution of Ejidal Lands and the Constitution of the Ejidal Patrimony, as well as the Creation of New Centers of Agricultural Population, Penalties in Agrarian Matters, and the National Agrarian Registry. The process from the beginning has been one of gradual expansion, and the code not only coordinates the agrarian legislation in force but simplifies and expedites the distribution of land, extending the right to land to a larger number of individuals.

Outstanding among the reforms to the agrarian legislation contained in the code are: The unification of the action of local and Federal authorities in agrarian proceedings through the establishment of mixed commissions, the shortening of the period of time which the various authorities had to make their decisions, the complete elimination of the political status requirement on the part of communities, the extension of the right to land to laborers residing on plantations, the establishment of new agricultural centers as a subsidiary method of providing land to the villages, the denial of the right of landowners affected by grants of land to seek redress in the courts, leaving as their only recourse the right to petition for agrarian bonds, the establishment of drastic penalties for violations of the code by the agrarian authorities especially in regard to the inalienability of small properties under cultivation, a better definition of the small properties exempt from expropriation through a simpler classification of the various kinds of land and the respective areas of the property, and the safeguarding of the landholder from his creditors by providing that all encumbrances on his property will be diminished proportionately to the amount of property expropriated by the Government.

AGRARIAN AUTHORITIES

The code provides that the following authorities shall take part in agrarian proceedings: The President of the Republic, the Agrarian Bureau, the State Governors, the Mixed Agrarian Commissions, the Agrarian Executive Committees, and the Ejidal Commissariats. To advise the President of the Republic, who is the supreme agrarian authority and whose final resolutions cannot be modified, there has been created a consulting body of five members. The Agrarian Bureau, which will have power to enforce the code, replaces the former national Agrarian Commission. The Mixed Agrarian Commissions will be the local enforcement agencies of the code in each of the States and will take the place of the former Local Agrarian Commissions. Unlike the latter, in which all the members were appointed by the State Governor, of the five members of the Mixed Commissions two represent the Federal Government, two the State government, and the fifth is elected by the peasants; one of the representatives of the Federal Government will be a delegate from the Agrarian Bureau and will preside over the commission. The Agrarian Executive Committees, composed of three members chosen by the State governors among the farmers petitioning for land, are the legal representatives of the petitioners and will execute the orders of possession, turning over to the Ejidal Commissariats the land and water granted or restored. They cease their functions once this is done. The Ejidal Commissariats are in charge of the administration of the land granted to the village.

PROCEDURE FOR THE DISTRIBUTION OF LAND

In the Agrarian Code, as in previous legislation, there are two principal methods of providing land and water for the villages—(1) restitution, when a community can prove that it has been illegally despoiled of lands previously held, and (2) dotation, or outright grant, when the community for any reason is unable to prove its right to lands previously held or where the community has never owned any lands but now stands in need of them. The petitions for either the dotation or restitution of land are presented in writing to the governor of the State, a copy being sent to the Mixed Agrarian Commission. Within ten days the governor must publish the petition and turn it over to the Commission. If he fails to do this, the Commission begins the proceedings from the copy in its possession.

Dotation.—The publication of the petition serves to notify all owners of land within a radius of seven miles from the petitioning community. Then the Mixed Commission proceeds to take a census of all the farmers in the community who under the terms of the law

are entitled to receive land. This census is important because it determines the amount of land to be expropriated. It is taken by a board composed of a representative of the Commission, a representative of the petitioning community, and a representative of the proprietors of the land likely to be affected. The representatives of the two interested groups may make objections; these will be taken into consideration provided documentary proof is brought to the Commission within 15 days after the census is taken. The Commission also makes a survey of the agricultural needs of the community and of the lands subject to expropriation.

Once this work is finished the Commission must pass upon the grant within 30 days and submit its decision to the governor for the issuance of the proper orders within 15 days. If the governor fails to act, the record is sent to the Agrarian Bureau for action. If the Commission does not render its report within 30 days, the governor may give the community possession of the land. When the decision of the governor is in the affirmative, it is executed by the Mixed Commission, which orders the Executive Committee to turn over such lands as have been determined to the Ejidal Commissariat. The owners are allowed the necessary time to harvest the crops that have been planted on the lands in question, or to remove the timber already cut, in the case of forests.

Whether the order of the governor is favorable or unfavorable the record is always sent to the Agrarian Bureau and studied by the Advisory Board, which passes on it and submits a decision to the President. The President's decision states the amount of land to be expropriated and the proportion which each neighboring farm is to contribute. It is final and irrevocable. The lands must be divided into lots and distributed to the farmers at the time the Presidential order is executed. The farmers then have definite possession of the land.

Restitution.—The procedure followed in the case of a community petitioning for the restitution of land illegally alienated is similar to that outlined above. Within 45 days after the petition is published the inhabitants of the community and the landowners presumably affected must present to the Mixed Agrarian Commission the titles and documents on which they base their rights. In turn these are sent to the Agrarian Bureau, which within 30 days must pass upon their authenticity. If the report is favorable the procedure continues as in the case of dotation, with the taking of the census, etc.

The most important difference between the two procedures is that under dotation the community receives only such amount and quality of land as corresponds to the needs of the population as shown by the agrarian census, but under restitution the community receives all the land to which it can prove title, regardless of its extent. If the

land which it receives is not sufficient it may ask for an additional area as dotation. If it is too large the size of the normal lots is doubled. The distinction between the two procedures is mostly theoretical, for in practice the code, considering the difficulty of proving title, provides that "if a petition is made for restitution it should be handled as such but the procedure prescribed for dotation should also be followed in case restitution should be declared unlawful." It also provides that "if the petition is vague as to the action contemplated, it will be treated as a dotation."

It is estimated that up to December 31, 1931, some 6.6 million hectares (16.5 million acres) of land have been distributed under the ejido laws to 3,900 villages, to the benefit of 705,000 heads of families. Of the total land distributed the overwhelming majority has been granted by the method of outright gift or dotation, i. e., 5.3 million hectares as compared with one million hectares by restitution.³

DOTATION AND RESTITUTION OF WATERS

The legal procedure for the dotation or restitution of waters needed by the village for irrigation purposes is similar to that described for lands. The survey made by the Mixed Agrarian Commission has obviously to be of a different type, and because of the technical problems involved the assistance of the Department of Agriculture and Promotion is required.

COMMUNITIES AND INDIVIDUALS ENTITLED TO GRANTS OF LANDS

All population centers which have been deprived of their lands, timber, or water illegally, are entitled to have these properties restored to them. All population centers lacking lands, timber, or water, or not having them in sufficient amount for their needs have a right to be given them. In no case, however, are the following entities entitled to a grant of lands or water:

1. The Federal and State capitals.
2. Population centers in which an agrarian census shows fewer than 20 individuals entitled to receive land.
3. Towns of more than 10,000 inhabitants if the agrarian census shows fewer than 200 individuals entitled to receive land.
4. Seaports devoted to ocean traffic and frontier ports with international railway communication lines.
5. Centers of population on the colonization projects of the Ministry of Agriculture and Promotion, the National Irrigation Commission, or the Mexican Financial Society.
6. Centers of population on lands which are the object of a colonization contract already in force.

³ Simpson, Eyer N.—*The Mexican Agrarian Reform, Problems and Progress*, Institute of Current World Affairs, Mexico, July 1933. (Not published.) This study is an excellent summary and interpretation of the legislation and achievements in all of the major phases of the agrarian reform movement.

Unmarried men over 16 years of age, all married men, and unmarried women or widows who have families to support are entitled to be included in the agrarian census and to receive individual parcels of ejidal lands provided that they be Mexicans, that they be residents of six months' standing in the petitioning village, and that their habitual occupation "be the exploitation of the land through personal labor." Persons who already possess an amount of land equal to or greater than the ejidal parcel or a capital of more than 2,500 pesos have no right to land.

RESIDENT LABORERS

Heretofore resident laborers, i.e., "laborers on haciendas who, occupying a house rent free within the hacienda, are economically dependent upon the wage which they receive for their services", were not entitled to receive land. The code provides that such laborers do not constitute a center of population entitled to a grant of land but that individually they are entitled to receive a parcel when:

1. Within a radius of 7 kilometers (4.3 miles) from the hacienda where the resident laborers are employed there are ejidos with vacant parcels.

2. Within a radius of 10 kilometers (6.2 miles) there are agrarian proceedings instituted, resident laborers who ask the Mixed Agrarian Commission or the Census Board have a right to be included in the agrarian census and receive a parcel.

3. Within the same radius proceedings are or may be instituted for the extension of the original grant of an ejido the resident laborers who so ask have a right to figure in the agrarian census of the ejido.

Those who cannot receive a parcel in this manner are entitled to receive one free of charge in the colonization projects or the division of large estates carried out by the Ministry of Agriculture and Promotion and the National Irrigation Commission.

Persons temporarily engaged as renters, share croppers, etc., will be considered resident laborers if they usually have this status.

AMOUNT AND KINDS OF GRANTS

Each individual eligible to receive land is entitled to a parcel of tilled or tillable land of the following size:

1. Four hectares (10 acres) of watered land, i.e., "land that has sufficient water for the customary crops of the region or receives sufficient moisture through floods or any other means."

2. Eight hectares (20 acres) of crop lands (tierras de temporal), i.e., "land that does not fall within the above classification."

Tillable land is defined as that which is not in cultivation but is economically and agriculturally susceptible of cultivation through the

investment of such capital and labor as are within the immediate means of the petitioners.

A grant of land includes, besides the individual parcels of tilled or tillable land, the pasture and brush lands required to meet the needs of the community as a whole, as well as the land necessary for an experimental field for a rural school.

Thus the total amount of land to be expropriated depends upon the number of individuals qualified to receive a parcel within the village and the communal needs for pasture and brush lands. The land is expropriated in the order given above, i.e., the best lands first. All farms within a 7-kilometer radius of the petitioning population center are subject to expropriation, the properties adjoining the petitioning community being affected first. If these properties are exempt or do not have good lands or lands in sufficient quantity to cover the grant, then the successive properties are affected in the order of their succession within the 7-kilometer radius, each property contributing areas of various classes of lands proportional to its total area and the quality of its lands and to the total grant to the community in question.

PROPERTY EXEMPT FROM EXPROPRIATION

The following property will be exempt from expropriation in case of restitution:

1. Lands title to which was obtained in the distribution made according to the law of June 25, 1856 (the law which disentailed church properties).

2. Land up to 50 hectares (125 acres) possessed under claim of title for over 10 years up to the date of the petition for restitution; if the excess thereof is to be expropriated, the owner may select the 50 hectares he can retain.

The following property will not be affected in case of dotation:

1. Properties not exceeding 150 hectares of watered land.

2. Any other lands to the extent of 300 hectares, provided that when there is not sufficient land within a radius of 7 kilometers to dotate the petitioning community the areas of the exempt property mentioned above may be reduced to 100 and 200 hectares, respectively.

3. Sugarcane lands, to the extent necessary to supply the mill, when owned by the landholder, with the average amount of cane ground during the last 5 years.

4. Land planted with bananas, coffee, cacao, and fruits to the extent of 300 hectares.

5. Lands subject to reforestation.

6. Up to 500 hectares of watered lands or their equivalent when they are used by the Federal agricultural schools.

Land planted with alfalfa, henequen, maguey, and other industrial agaves and banana, coffee, cacao, and fruit plantations exceeding 300 hectares may be exempted provided that:

1. Such plantations existed 6 months before the petition for dotation was published.

2. The persons to be affected by the petition agree to furnish the land due to the petitioning community within a 7-kilometer radius therefrom.

Buildings of any kind not in ruins and irrigation works shall not be included in grants of land. In the case where irrigation works furnish water to both village lands and those retained by the owner, the landlord is obliged to allow his works to be used for passage of water to the ejidal lands and the ejidatarios (those granted ejidal lands) in turn must contribute with their labor or in cash to the preservation of the works in question.

EXTENSION OF ORIGINAL GRANTS

A community which has received land may at any time ask that the area of the ejido be extended, provided that:

1. It can show that it has made good use of the land previously granted.

2. That there are at least 20 individuals in the village who according to law are entitled to land and who do not possess it.

3. The land is to be devoted to the creation of new parcels.

4. That in the new agrarian census there do not appear individuals (or their heirs) who have previously been granted land. The same legal procedure is followed for the extension of an original grant as outlined under *dotation*.

A village may also automatically obtain an extension of its original grant when at the time of dividing the land among the villagers a statement is made showing that there is not enough land to give a parcel to each individual entitled to it, provided that the area cannot be extended by clearing timber or pasture lands or through irrigation.

Previous legislation provided that a case for an additional grant of land could be initiated only after a lapse of 10 years from the time of the original grant and that the land for this purpose could be expropriated only *after* payment by the Federal Government.

ESTABLISHMENT OF NEW AGRICULTURAL CENTERS

When a community can in no other way obtain land to satisfy the needs of its population, the code provides for the establishment of new agricultural centers in some other locality. New centers may be established when:

1. The land restored to a community is not sufficient for all the individuals who figure in the agrarian census and it is impossible to obtain more land through dotation.

2. The land which can be expropriated within a 7-kilometer radius from the community is not sufficient to enable each individual in the village to have the land to which he is entitled according to the code.

3. The extension of the area of an ejido is lawful, but there are no good lands available subject to expropriation.

4. The needs of "resident laborers" cannot be satisfied as previously described.

5. The land needed is exempt from expropriation because it is planted with sugarcane to be used in the manufacture of sugar at a mill thereon situated and belonging to the owner of the land.

In order to form a new agricultural center there must be at least 20 individuals ready to move to the new location and reside there.

COMPENSATION FOR PROPERTY EXPROPRIATED

With regard to compensation for property expropriated incident to the distribution of lands and waters to villages, Art. 177 of the Code restates section XIV of Art. 27 of the Mexican Constitution as amended December 30, 1933: "Property owners affected by decisions restoring or granting lands and waters, which have been, or which in the future may be, dictated in favor of villages, will have no ordinary right or recourse at law nor may they institute *amparo* (injunction) proceedings. Those who are affected by dotation will have only the right to apply to the Federal Government for the corresponding compensation. This right must be exercised by the interested parties within one year from the date in which the respective decision is published in the Federal *Diario Oficial*. Once this term has elapsed no claim will be allowed."

Thus property owners may appeal to the Mixed Agrarian Commissions while the proceedings granting land to a village are being instituted or to the Agrarian Bureau after the Governor has issued an order of possession, but they have no recourse at law. Neither can the landowner hold up the final action of the President by securing an *amparo* restraining him from alienating his property. The only legal recourse open to a landowner whose property has been affected by the dotation of lands to a village (including the extension of an original grant and the establishment of a new agricultural center) is to petition the Government for indemnification.

The procedure to be followed to secure this indemnity is not provided in the code. The third temporary article provides that regulations to this effect are to be issued and that when issued they will constitute a chapter of the code. Payment for property expropriated heretofore has been made in 20-year 5-percent bonds of the Agrarian Public Debt, the basis for compensation being the tax valuation of the property plus 10 percent. Such was the constitutional provision contained in Article 27 of the Mexican Constitution, but when this famous article was amended on December 30,

1933, the period during which the bonds were to be amortized was not stated, the interest was reduced to 3 percent,⁴ and the basis for compensation was changed from tax valuation plus 10 percent to tax valuation alone.⁵

The Mexican Government has provided through several decrees that agrarian bonds may be used at par for payment of Federal taxes not especially pledged, for payment for public lands, to guarantee deposits in any case where bonds of the public debt are permitted in place of cash, and for payment of special taxes, and that they may be offered as collateral in the National Agricultural Credit Bank up to 66 percent of their commercial value.

To protect the landowner, the code provides that any encumbrances on property which is the subject of grants shall be canceled in proportion to the amount of property expropriated, the only right of the creditor being a corresponding share of the indemnity paid to the landowner.

PARCELING OF VILLAGE LANDS

The code provides that when the President issues the resolution giving a village definite possession of its lands, the authorities shall proceed immediately to divide into individual parcels the tilled or tillable lands, leaving the pastures, forests, and other indivisible property to be used in common by the inhabitants of the village. A temporary division is also provided for when a village comes into possession of lands through a governor's order.

In the permanent division of the village lands the following areas are not subject to parcelization: (1) An "urban zone", including a lot set aside for the rural school and its sports and experimental fields; (2) pasture and timber lands sufficient for the whole community; (3) special areas that constitute physically indivisible units and require for their proper exploitation the cooperative efforts of all the farmers.

The tilled or tillable land is then divided into lots of the size and kind specified in the Presidential resolution. Only in cases where the ejidatario has a source of income besides the cultivation of his plot or in cases of indivisible units may the size of the individual parcel vary from that specified in the resolution. If any land is left over, additional lots are parcelled or a reserve zone formed from which the sons of ejidatarios upon coming of age or people from neighboring villages may receive plots. If the land is insufficient the Code provides that a plan should be worked out to extend the area under cultivation by clearing timber or pasture lands, building irrigation works, etc., with the financial aid of the Federal and State Governments and the Agricultural Credit Bank. If it is not possible to meet the needs

⁴ Article 27, *Diario Oficial*, January 10, 1934, Par. XVII (d).

⁵ *Ibid.*, par. VI (2).

of the village in this manner, a statement declaring a shortage of land will be made; the Agrarian Bureau considers this statement as a petition for an additional grant of land already passed upon by the Mixed Agrarian Commission and approved by the respective Governor, and acts upon it with a minimum of delay.

In making the distribution of the lots among the farmers entitled to receive them, preference is given in the following order:

1. Ejidatarios (or their heirs) whose names appear in the original agrarian census and who are cultivating their plot.

2. Villagers who do not appear in the census but have tilled their plots regularly for more than two years.

3. Those who appeared in the census and are not tilling any plot but desire to do so.

4. Those who have a recently adjudicated plot.

5. Farmers who have reached the age at which they are entitled to a plot and do not have one.

6. Resident laborers from neighboring plantations.

7. Farmers from other ejidos where there is a shortage of land.

8. Farmers from adjoining population centers.

In every case an effort will be made to assign a particular plot to the man who has been occupying it or has made improvements on it. The rest of the parcels will be distributed by lot.

When there is not enough land to make up the necessary number of plots for all those entitled to them, the potential beneficiaries are eliminated in the inverse order of the above-mentioned preferences and within each of those preferences in the following order:

1. Single men over 16 and under 21.

2. Single men over 21.

3. Married men without families.

4. Married men with families.

A list is then made of farmers who are without land because they were eliminated from the distribution of plots in their own village so that they may be placed:

1. On ejidos where there is an excess of land.

2. On plots which might be reclaimed from untilled ejidal lands by clearing pasture or timber lands or through irrigation.

3. On plots which may be assigned to them in one of the national irrigation projects.

4. On lands divided by the National Agricultural Credit Bank and other similar institutions.

5. On land acquired by the farmers themselves through the financial assistance of the National Agricultural Credit Bank.

6. In new agricultural centers.

7. In extensions of the original grants made to villages.

The parceling of the ejidos is to begin in those villages having sufficient land to give each farmer a plot, and is to continue in those

whose area for distribution can be increased through minor irrigation projects, etc., as well as in villages having sufficient funds or credit to acquire additional lands. The last ejidos to be parceled will be those in which the original land grant will have to be amplified or new agricultural centers established.

PROPERTY RIGHTS VESTED IN THE COMMUNITY AND IN THE EJIDATARIO

In defining the property rights vested in the community the code states that the property acquired by a village is inalienable and, therefore, "in no case and in no form whatsoever may it be ceded, conveyed, rented, hypothecated, or made subject to lien in whole or in part." All acts and contracts which violate this principle are void.

The community retains the ownership of the forests, pastures, waters, and the indivisible units which require the cooperative efforts of the villagers to till. The ownership of the divisible tillable land, however, resides in the individual ejidatario. He has permanent possession and usufruct of the soil and its improvements, with all rights of inheritance, as long as he works his parcel of land. To protect him from his own weakness and the ambitions of unscrupulous persons, his property right is limited by the fact that it is inalienable and therefore he cannot lease, rent, mortgage, or dispose of his lot in any other manner which releases him from cultivation of the soil. The only way in which he can be deprived of his parcel is through the violation of the above principles; neglect to till the land during 2 consecutive years; mental derangement, alcoholic degeneration, or imprisonment for more than two years (these apply if there are no relatives to cultivate the plot); nonpayment of taxes or dues assessed for the improvement of the ejido; failure to take possession of his parcel within three months after the village has received land; and, in case of a woman, if she marries into a family that has land.

The land and waters of the ejido can only be expropriated by the President in such cases of public utility as the construction of highways and the exploitation of subsoil resources, and then only after payment has been made. The compensation paid belongs to the community which in turn must give new plots or compensate the ejidatarios affected.

TAXATION OF THE EJIDO

The municipal, State, and Federal Governments are forbidden to impose on ejido properties more than one predial tax, which in no case may exceed 5 percent of the annual production of the ejido. Fiscal responsibility for the individual plots rests on the ejidatarios concerned and fiscal coercion can be brought to bear only upon the crops of the delinquent ejidatarios up to 25 percent of the annual production of their parcels. The community as a whole, however,

bears responsibility for the property enjoyed in common. Local taxes may be imposed through the general assemblies of the ejidatarios.

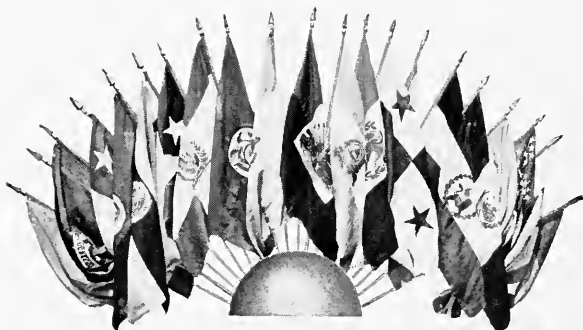
ADMINISTRATION OF THE EJIDO

The administration of the agrarian property and the supervision of the parcelling of the land on behalf of the village is in charge of an Ejidal Commissariat composed of three members of the ejido community in good standing elected for a term of two years by a majority vote of the ejidatarios. It represents the community before the administrative and judicial authorities, administers the communal property of the ejido (pastures, forests, water rights, etc.), supervises the exploitation of the individual parcels, seeks to improve the ejido property, and calls general assemblies of the ejidatarios, carrying out their instructions as well as those of the representatives of the Agrarian Bureau or the National Agricultural Credit Bank.

There is also a supervisory board in each community similarly formed and elected which, as its name suggests, is charged with the duty of seeing that the Ejidal Commissariats perform their duties according to the law, and which is empowered to audit their accounts and report any irregularities to the Agrarian Bureau.

At least one general assembly of the ejidatarios is to be held each month, and all obligations contracted by the Commissariats without the authorization of the assembly are void. The decisions of the assembly are generally subject to revision by the Agrarian Bureau.

In accordance with the Agricultural Credit Law the social and economic organization of the ejido is in the hands of the national Agricultural Credit Bank which supplants the representatives of the Agrarian Bureau in the work of organizing and regulating the ejidos. In those zones where the Bank does not yet operate the Agrarian Bureau is charged with the preparation of a plan of cultivation and promotion for each of the ejidos which shall deal with those crops or methods which are forbidden because they exhaust the soil or are wasteful, the introduction of crops or better methods of cultivation in order to obtain a maximum return from the natural resources and labor, the organization of the ejidatarios for production or marketing, and the best manner of exploiting the communal resources. The plan is submitted to the approval of the assembly and once approved by it is binding upon all the ejidatarios and is enforced by the agrarian authorities. A communal fund is provided for each of the ejidos, to be formed with the moneys derived from the communal exploitation of the forests and pastures, the local taxes imposed by the assembly, the payments for ejidal property expropriated by the Government, etc., this fund to be used for the purchase of land, machinery, stock, and seeds and for improvements, such as schools and irrigation works.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Constitution of Ecuador.—The Library of the Pan American Union has a few copies of the 1929 Constitution of the Republic of Ecuador for free distribution as long as the supply lasts.

Recent accessions.—New books acquired by the library include:

Antonio José de Irisarri, escritor y diplomático [por] Ricardo Donoso. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1934. 317 p. front. (port.), plates, ports., map. 20 cm. [Irisarri, who lived a busy life in the nineteenth century, herein finds a worthy biographer in Ricardo Donoso, whose previous works include biographies of other famous Chileans.]

Barros Arana y el método analítico en la historia; un ensayo de interpretación [por] Guillermo Feliú Cruz . . . Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1934. 48 p. pl. (port.) 26 cm. [An interesting study of the methods of Diego Barros Arana, the author of the sixteen-volume *Historia general de Chile*, a standard Chilean history, and other works.]

En torno de Ricardo Palma. La estancia en Chile [por] Guillermo Feliú Cruz. . . [Santiago] Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1933. 255 p. front. (port.), plates (ports.) 27½ cm. [A new biography of Palma by the well-known Chilean historian and bibliographer. There is also another volume in this set by Prof. Feliú Cruz, entitled *En torno de Ricardo Palma. Ensayo crítico-bibliográfico*.]

Los problemas educacionales; mi paso por el Ministerio de educación [por] Mariano Navarrete C. . . Santiago de Chile, Ediciones Ereilla, 1934. 378 p. 23 cm. (Biblioteca Ereilla, vol. xxii.) [Señor Navarrete reviews the work accomplished by the Ministry of Public Education of Chile during the time he was at the head of it.]

De cómo se ha formado la nación colombiana [por] Luis López de Mesa . . . Bogotá, Librería colombiana, 1934. 228 p. 25½ cm. Contents: 1. El signo histórico de América; 2. El territorio de Colombia; 3. Composición e índole de los grupos raciales que la pueblan; 4. Desarrollo de su riqueza; 5. Su evolución constitucional; 6. Religión y religiosidad suyas; 7. Empresas históricas de su cultura; 8. Su expresión en el arte; 9. Su misión. [Luis López de Mesa, classicist, teacher, philosopher, publishes with this work his most complete study to date of Colombian life.]

Ricardo Palma, 1833-1933. [Lima, Compañía de impresiones y publicidad, 1934.] 341 p. 22½ cm. [A collection of addresses and essays honoring Ricardo Palma on the centenary of his birth. The last part of the book consists of letters of Palma to eminent contemporaries. This volume is published by the Sociedad Amigos de Palma, of Lima.]

Acción parlamentaria y diplomática; modestos discursos en altas tribunas [por] Jacobo Varela Acevedo. Montevideo, Claudio García, editor, 1934. 337 p. 20 cm. [A collection of addresses by a former Uruguayan minister to the United States chosen from those delivered during twenty-two years of public life.]

New magazines and those received for the first time during the past month are as follows:

La Administración nacional; cuadernos de comentarios e informaciones autorizadas de la Administración nacional. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año II, vol. IV, 10 de mayo de 1934. 30 p. 40x28 cm. Three times a month. Address: Avenida de mayo 1035—6° piso, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Revista policial. Buenos Aires, 1934. Mayo de 1934. 73 p. illus., ports. 26½x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: Oreste J. L. Argenti. Address: Estados Unidos 862, Buenos Aires, República Argentina.

Revista popular; órgão da "Liga de defesa social." São Paulo, 1934. Ano I, N.º 7, maio de 1934. [20] p. illus. 29½x22 cm. Editor: A. G. Xavier Netto. Address: R. Barão de Itapetininga 52, 3.º andar—sala 1, São Paulo, Brazil.

Acción chilena; la revista de los problemas nacionales. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Vol. I, N.º 8, marzo 15, 1934. [31] p. 27x19 cm. Editor: Carlos Keller R. Address: E. MacIver 300, Casilla 337, Santiago de Chile.

Aulos; revista musical. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año II, N.º 7, enero-febrero de 1934. 44 p. 25x19 cm. Bi-monthly. Editor: Domingo Santa Cruz. Address: Calle San Isidro 53, Casilla 2100, Santiago de Chile.

Boletín mensual de la Caja de retiros y de previsión social de los FF. CC. del estado. Santiago de Chile, 1933. Año VII, N.º 78, diciembre de 1933. 67 p. 25½x18 cm. Monthly. Address: Rosas 1080, Casilla N.º 101-D, Santiago de Chile.

Mundo social. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año V, N.º 53, febrero de 1934. 88 p. illus., ports. 26½x18½ cm. Monthly. Address: Huérfanos 930, 4.º piso, Of. 45, Santiago de Chile.

El Progreso de Chile; revista biográfica, jurídica, industrial, comercial y agrícola; órgano oficial de la Unión departamental de empleados públicos de Santiago. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año I, N.º 1, febrero de 1934. 34 p. illus., ports. 25½x19 cm. Bi-monthly. Editor: Augusto Santander D. Address: Estado 33, Santiago de Chile.

La voz de la raza; revista mensual, gratuita para los socios de la Sociedad hispano chilena de cultura. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año II, N.º 4, enero de 1934. 40 p. illus., ports. 26x19 cm. Monthly. Editor: Blasco de Gama. Address: Ahumada 123, Santiago de Chile.

Memorias de la Sociedad cubana de historia natural (órgano oficial del Museo Poy de la Universidad de La Habana). La Habana, 1934. Vol. VIII, N.º 1, marzo 1934. 60 p. diagrs. 25x17 cm. Editor: Carlos de la Torre. Address: Museo Poy, Universidad de La Habana, Cuba. [Renewal of the publication of these *Memorias* after a period of more than five years.]

Excelsior ilustrado; revista centroamericana. Tegucigalpa, 1933. Año I, N.º 4, Edición especial, septiembre 15 de 1933. 24 p. illus., ports. 32x26 cm. Editor: Rodolfo Buezo. Address: Tegucigalpa, Honduras. [Edición especial dedicada al pueblo nicaragüense y a su gobierno, impreso en Managua, Nicaragua.]

Cooperativismo; revista del movimiento cooperativo de México; [publicación del Departamento de fomento cooperativo, publicada por la Secretaría de la economía nacional]. México, 1934. Tomo I, N.º 3, mayo de 1934. 32 p. 29x20 cm. Monthly. Address: Av. República Argentina 12, México, D.F., México.

Tierra; periódico del Departamento agrario para los ejidatorios. México, 1934. Año I, N.º 4, mayo de 1934. 8 p. illus., ports. 40x30 cm. Monthly. Editor: José Puchades Ross. Address: Av. Juárez, N.º 58, México, D.F., México.

La Gaceta financiera. Lima, 1934. Año I, N.º 1, 7 de abril de 1934. 16 p. diags. 45x29 cm. Weekly. Editor: J. Anselmi Laukin. Address: Apartado postal 691, Lima, Perú.

The Spanish Review; a journal devoted to Spanish and Spanish-American culture, especially in its relation to the United States. New York, 1934. Vol. 1, N.º 1. March 1934. 46 p. 25x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: Barbara Matulka. Address: 840 East Building, Washington Square College, New York University. New York, N.Y., U.S.A.



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY AND LITERARY NOTES

According to the annual report of the Director, Dr. Gustavo Martínez Zuviría, the National Library of Argentina has now 310,267 volumes. During 1933, 25,543 volumes were added to the collection. The work of the library has been expanded by establishing five new divisions, namely: Reference division, periodical division, the Donezri collection, division of exchanges, and card division. 9,392 cards were added to the catalog, which was a notable increase over any one year during the past decade.

A Hispanic American section has been established in the University of La Plata, Argentina. It will comprise collections of books from the countries of the American continent.

The city of Ambato, Ecuador, has extended an invitation to the public, university, and school librarians throughout the country to assemble in the Casa de Montalvo November 12 to 17, 1934, under the auspices of the Library of National Authors. All topics pertaining to the improvement of libraries in Ecuador will be discussed, including a uniform system of cataloging and classification, education and training of librarians, and legislation supporting libraries.

The Congress of Ecuador has passed a decree which provides that publishers and authors must present one copy of their books each to the National Library, the Public Library of the city in which the work is published, the "Autores Nacionales de Ambato", and the Municipal Library of Guayaquil. A fine equal to twice the sale price of the book will be imposed for failure to comply with the decree. Each library is required to publish periodically a list of accessions, and the department of libraries will publish as an appendix to the report of the Minister of Education a cumulative list of books and periodicals published during that year. The decree also provides for free postal franking privileges for lending books, and establishes a prize of 1,000 sucres for the best work published in the field of literature, science, sociology, and history.

In response to a request of the Municipal Library of Santa Ana, Republic of El Salvador, for books to augment its collection, the National Printing Office of Guatemala selected and presented a number of books on various subjects by Guatemalan authors.—THE LIBRARIAN, Columbus Memorial Library.

GOOD-WILL TRIP TO MEXICO

Sponsored by the Mexican Chamber of Commerce of the United States, a short good-will trip to Mexico will be taken by business men of the United States in August. The party will sail from New York on August 29, arriving in Mexico City on September 3. A flexible itinerary has been planned so that members may hold business conferences if they desire. Since the trip is semi-official in character, they will have an exceptional opportunity to meet, under the most auspicious circumstances, the leading business men and industrialists of the cities included in the tour, and to study problems of mutual interest. Besides visits to the main points of interest in the capital, excursions will be made to Xochimileo and Guadalupe, Toluca, Taxco and Cuernavaca, San Juan Teotihuacan, and Puebla and Cholula, but one day will be left entirely free for conferences.

The group will return to the United States by train, with stopovers at Guadalajara and Monterrey, arriving in New York on September 17.

Further information about the tour may be obtained from the Mexican Chamber of Commerce of the United States, 74 Trinity Place, New York, N.Y.



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SEBASTIÁN DE BENALCÁZAR

QUITO

ITS QUADRICENTENNIAL

SEPTEMBER

1934

MEXICO:ONDURAS:HAITI:GUATEMALA

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SEPTEMBER

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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Director General

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Assistant Director

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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THE JESUIT CHURCH, QUITO.

Perhaps unsurpassed in the Americas are the magnificent churches of Quito, of which the Church of La Compañía is an admirable example.



VOL. LXVIII

SEPTEMBER 1934

No. 9

QUITO

By Dr. JOSÉ GABRIEL NAVARRO

Minister of Foreign Affairs of Ecuador; Member of the Ecuadorean Academy of History; Corresponding Member of the Academy of History of Venezuela, the Academy of History of Spain, and the Academy of Fine Arts of San Fernando of Spain

GLORIOUS was the epic lived by that handful of valiant Spaniards who, under Francisco Pizarro and his lieutenants, with unheard-of daring conquered the Kingdom of Peru. And if the chapter inscribed by Don Pedro de Alvarado in the annals of Ecuadorean colonial history during the same period was not equally glorious, it was none the less worthy of the Castilian spirit that the conquistadors of America brought with them, as descendents of the Cid, Pelayo, and Almanzor.

At the beginning of 1534, when Alvarado, then governor of Guatemala, was tired of resting from his achievements in that region and in Mexico, there came to his ears news of the marvels of the new Kingdom of Peru, formed by other luckier adventurers, profiting by Balboa's discovery of the Southern Sea. He could not long remain quiet in the peaceful government of so small a territory as that which it has been his fate to conquer; so, obedient to his restless spirit and without further investigation, without taking any measures other than those most essential and indispensable for carrying out his plans, he equipped an expedition for the Incan El Dorado to try to profit—by fishing in muddy waters—from the discoveries of Pizarro and Almagro on the Pacific.

A kingdom vast and rich, marvelous and splendid! Alvarado was not mistaken when he imagined that there was plenty of room in those lands for one more conquistador. But he was not aware of the Trujillan's ambition; to Pizarro, the land to be conquered was limited and small for, not content with what the King had generously

granted him at the beginning, he wrested from the monarch, Charles V, a few more leagues of territory to add to what was already his, although by so doing he diminished the share belonging to his unfortunate associate, Almagro, and might have foreseen, perhaps, that as a result American soil would be stained with blood in the first of the civil wars which even the aborigines found so shocking. The expression which the future Marquis of los Atavillos must have assumed when he learned of the coming of the governor of Guatemala can well be imagined. If with his own companion and associate, Almagro, he was disputing inch by inch the land which they should have divided like brothers and good friends, how much less disposed



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

TOWERS OF QUITO.

The Andean heights form a background against which the steeples and cupolas of Quito's churches are outlined.

would he be to recognize any right thereto on the part of an adventurer who had not even endured with him the bitterness of the tragic isolation on Gallo Island! He prepared, therefore, to repulse Alvarado.

It is true that Alvarado was coming with picked men, who in no wise resembled in number or quality Pizarro's levies. The expedition was made up of well-tested hidalgos of private means, *hombres de pro*, who joined the governor of Guatemala of their own free will, because of their adventurous spirit. These men never drew a single cent of pay from him; they were excellently equipped at their own expense, and magnificently mounted on their own steeds, with a retinue of slaves and servants who were a sight in themselves. But two factors



INDEPENDENCE PLAZA, QUITO.

Replete with historic memories is the principal plaza of Quito, lying almost in the shadow of Mount Pichincha, on whose slopes the colonists won a decisive battle in the struggle for independence.



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

SANTO DOMINGO PLAZA.

Notwithstanding the passing of centuries, this plaza retains to a marked degree its colonial atmosphere.

militated in favor of Pizarro: The astuteness of his lieutenants, at the head of whom was Marshal Diego de Almagro, and the tropical mountain region which rapidly wore down Alvarado's forces in their epic march of more than five months through the virgin forests of Esmeraldas and Manabí.

In the middle of August 1534, the rusty bugles of Alvarado's troops sounded through the Andean cordillera, very near to Chimborazo; but when the men descended to the plains of Liribamba, Almagro was already prepared to defend his own rights and those of Pizarro. With great sagacity he fell back on the expedient which would have immediately occurred at that time to every good Spaniard who still remembered with regret the defeat of the Castilian communes on the field of Villalar: the establishment of a city with a cabildo, or governing body, elected by popular vote. Moreover, in that manner he fulfilled one of the stipulations of Pizarro with the Crown of Castile. No sooner thought of than done. On August 15, 1534, Marshal Diego de Almagro called his soldiers together on the slopes of Chimborazo and founded the first Ecuadorean city, so that he could prove to the governor of Guatemala his possession of these lands and thus oppose the latter's claims. Once friendly arrangements had been made between the two conquerors, Almagro proceeded to found the city of San Francisco de Quito on August 28 of the same year, organizing its cabildo by common accord, dividing its offices between the men of Pizarro and Alvarado, and appointing as governor Adelantado Sebastián de Benalcázar. To him was entrusted the transfer of the city from the slopes of Chimborazo to those of Pichincha, where the former capital of the ancient Kingdom of Quito, still under Incan rule, was situated.

On December 4, 1534, at the close of a lovely afternoon, Benalcázar, accompanied by his soldiers, arrived at the outskirts of the native city; to give greater solemnity to his occupation of it, he postponed his entrance until the following morning. In the gleam of the first rays of the morning sun, Benalcázar appeared surrounded by the first inhabitants of the city of Quito, two hundred six in number; in their presence he called a meeting of its cabildo—court and municipal council—and declared it in operation. Thus was founded what was to prove, as time went on, the oldest capital of South America.

Quito is truly a beautiful and charming city. Lying on the eastern slopes of Pichincha, 9,343 feet above sea level, at $0^{\circ}14'$ south latitude and $81^{\circ}4'38''$ west longitude from the meridian of Paris, it is, after La Paz (Bolivia), the highest capital of any nation in the world. Its mean temperature of 55.4° F. and its perpetually springlike climate make Quito the city most conducive to man's health. Days and nights are always equal in length; trees and plants never wither in this privileged spot, where the fields are perennially verdant and enchanting with flowers.



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

CONVENT OF SAN DIEGO.

Of this convent, and particularly of its cloister, it may well be said, as a writer once wrote of a temple in Guatemala: "In a word, this place of grace and blessing has a certain air so majestic, devout, and awe-inspiring that every one who enters observes that its very spirit is born in him."



CLOISTER OF SAN AGUSTÍN.

Since the end of the sixteenth century this cloister with its splendid paintings and carved ceiling has been famous as one of the artistic treasures of the country.

Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

PULPIT IN THE CONVENT OF SAN DIEGO.

It would be difficult to find the equal of this magnificent pulpit of carved and gilded wood.

DETAIL OF THE CHAPTER ROOM, CONVENT OF SAN AGUSTÍN.

The room where the declaration of independence was ratified on August 16, 1809, is a gem of art. The exquisite workmanship of the tribune, chair, and table testify to the ability of the artists of the early seventeenth century.



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

The city is irregular in form; none of its streets are straight, as if drawn by a ruler, or absolutely level, owing to the fact that the houses were built on the slopes of a mountain between deep ravines, today mostly filled in.

The cabildo drew up the plan of the city with streets 33 feet wide and 48 blocks for dwellings, each block containing four lots, and distributed the lots to the Spaniards who wished to settle there; later it selected the sites that the chief church, today a cathedral, and the monasteries of San Francisco, La Merced, and Santo Domingo were to occupy. Everyone, monks and laymen, began immediately to erect their buildings, all of which, monasteries and churches included, were at first only miserable straw huts. And since there were in the province of Quito a great many Indians who would make suitable servants for the citizens, soon a goodly number of Spaniards flocked thither and the city grew rapidly.

The cabildo also ordered that the surrounding lands not belonging to the Indians be divided into plots, and one plot granted to each citizen. It distributed gardens and later, Indian villages *en encomienda*, which entitled the holder to put the inhabitants to forced labor. For the proper administration of the city the cabildo marked its limits; for assuring prosperity, it forbade the inhabitants to leave; for the promotion of order it did not permit them to roam about the streets after nine o'clock at night. From the very beginning the cabildo supervised the sale of foodstuffs for the needs of the population and even went so far as to fix, in a detailed ordinance, the prices of shoes, capes, and apparel in general. Then, as the city grew, the cabildo took charge of its conservation, cleanliness, and improvement, attending to public health, watching over the supply of meat and water, protecting the arts and trades, stores, warehouses, and workshops, indicating the standards to which articles of daily consumption should conform, fixing the boundaries of the lands distributed, assigning to each proprietor the brand for his flocks, and even naming the saints to be the patrons of the city, of agriculture, of the professions, etc.

On March 14, 1541, Emperor Charles V gave Quito the status of city by a royal decree issued at Talavera and promulgated in Quito by Licenciado Don Cristóbal Vaca de Castro on September 26 of the same year. On the same date he also granted the city a coat of arms, as follows: On a red background, a silver castle with three towers, the largest surmounted by a cross on a green base between two black eagles in flight, flecked with gold, the castle standing on two gray hills, each with a green cave, the whole surrounded by a blue border on which is a gold Franciscan cord. Finally, on February 14, 1556, he conferred on Quito the title of Very Noble and Very Loyal and granted it a royal standard.



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

SAINT BERNARDINO OF SIENA.

The sculptural genius of the Jesuit, Padre Carlos, (1620-80) is evinced by this and other works of his in the Quito churches.



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

SAINT FRANCIS.

Executed by Manuel Chili (Caspicara), an Indian of the seventeenth century, this magnificent polychrome sculpture in wood is an eloquent example of the artistic ability latent in the Indians of the New World.

On August 29, 1563, Philip II, noting that Quito was growing prodigiously and promising to be one of the greatest cities of Spanish America, issued a decree at Guadalajara creating the Royal Audiencia (tribunal) of Quito, composed of a president, two *oidores* (judges), and a *fiscal* (crown prosecutor). From that date until the end of Spanish rule, Quito was governed by 33 presidents, many of whom made material improvements of no little importance in the city. Toward the end of the eighteenth century, Quito was a *città famosa* to the celebrated Padre Coletti, who thus described it in his important *Dizionario storico-geografico dell' America Meridionale*; it had some 50,000 inhabitants and splendid buildings, many of which are still standing, while Santiago and Buenos Aires, today great cities, had hardly commenced to climb the heights of their prosperity, begun when the Crown of Spain, acceding to the proposal of the Viceroy of the Río de La Plata, granted freedom of commerce to the southern ports. And it was that very measure which nullified to a great extent the advantageous situation of the cities near Panama, and checked as if by magic the stupendous prosperity which the present capital of Ecuador then enjoyed.

The city of Quito now has a population of more than 100,000. The buildings are of stone, brick, or adobe (sun-dried brick, used even in Etruscan times); the majority of the houses are of two stories, although there are many of three and some of four. It has all modern improvements: electricity, trolley cars, telephones, city water, and sewers, assuring proper sanitation; the streets have bitulithic pavements.

But none of these modern improvements arouses in the traveler visiting Quito for the first time the admiration which he feels on his first glimpses of its architectural marvels and the miracles of painting and sculpture which give Quito an almost Toledan atmosphere and have made the capital of Ecuador one of the most interesting, celebrated, and wonderful capitals of American art. As a matter of fact, the tourist who wanders through the streets of the city finds one surprise after another as he penetrates its narrow winding streets, reminiscent of certain Andalusian quarters, which still preserve their individual flavor, as he notes first a votive chapel, next a parish church, then a monastic temple of magnificent proportions, or falls under the spell of the alluring glimpse of an ancient entrance leading to a colonnaded patio of vast proportions, more a copy of the Cordoban courtyard with its palms and orange trees, vines and flowers, than of the small and gay Sevillian patio.

By the inscrutable workings of that Divine Providence which rules the destinies of this world, Quito was an artistic center of the first order from its very foundation. For by 1599, the year in which Velázquez was born in Spain, there had emerged from one of the

humblest studios of Quito a marvelous painting signed by a mestizo, proud of indicating his colonial origin on the canvas. The painter's name was Adrián Sánchez Galque, and his picture is today in the National Archaeological Museum of Madrid, awaiting its transfer to the Prado Museum, when the section of Hispano-American Colonial Art shall have been established there. The painting, moreover, recalls an event of special interest in the annals of Spanish colonization: the pacification of the Ecuadorean Province of Esmeraldas; there for the first time in South America negro and Indian intermarried, producing the hardy mulatto who checked for half a century the progress of the Spanish conquistador in the luxuriant forests of the Ecuadorean northwest. The canvas represents the portraits of



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

THE FIRST THREE NEGRO CONVERTS OF ESMERALDAS.

Painted in 1599 by the Ecuadorean mestizo, Sánchez Galque, this canvas hangs in the National Archaeological Museum at Madrid. It depicts the first three negroes baptized in Quito in 1598, after the subjugation of the Province of Esmeraldas.

the first three negroes who, after the subjugation of the province, came to Quito to be baptized, in 1598; and from whatever point of view it is considered, it is a first-class work of intrinsic merit, by a great artist. The drawing, the portraiture, and the painting of Sánchez Galque's picture place it in the first rank among sixteenth-century Spanish paintings.

It hardly seems possible that fifty years after the foundation of the city of Quito, when the second generation of Spanish settlers was beginning to flourish, there should appear unexpectedly, with extraordinary vigor, a painter of the first rank, from whom the celebrated School of Quito was later to stem, a school which, after all its ups and downs, still exists today and legitimately enjoys a high reputation.

For Galque taught Miguel de Santiago, and Miguel de Santiago, Goribar; these three constitute the glorious trinity of our school of painting, the trunk and roots of what was to become a flourishing tree. From that school history has noted the names of Padre Bedón, Miguel de Santiago, Bernabé Lobato, Simón de Valenzuela, Morales, Vela, Oviedo, Brother Hernando de la Cruz, Samaniego, Ramírez, Benavides, Albán, Astudillo, and Cortés de Alcocer and his two sons who, together with Vicente Sánchez Barrionuevo, Antonio de Silva,



THE PROPHET HABAKKUK.

The series of paintings of the prophets which embellish the Church of La Compañía is the work of Goribar González; he and Miguel de Santiago were the two outstanding artists of the primitive Colonial period of Ecuadorian art.

Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

and Francisco Villarroel, pupils of Bernardo Rodríguez, went to Santa Fé de Bogotá at the request of Mutis ¹ and by the order of the Viceroy to draw and paint the still unpublished plates of the scientific works which was the result of the botanical expedition entrusted to that great savant. Some of these plates, in the opinion of such an authority as the eminent academician of San Fernando, Don Francisco Javier Sánchez Cantón, present assistant director of the Prado Museum, are worthy of the signature of Dürer.

¹ See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for June 1932 and March 1933.



Courtesy of José Gabriel Navarro.

HEADQUARTERS OF THE INSPECTOR, CONVENT OF LA MERCED.

This room is indicative of Quito art during the eighteenth century.

But if in private mansions examples of the great school of painting native to the city of Quito can be admired, it is in its churches and monasteries that one finds most at home whole collections of excellent canvases in which even the most refined taste and exigent criticism take delight. And in addition to these canvases religious images, sculptures in wood, and retablo carving dazzle him who first penetrates those shrines of Christian piety, notable both for their admirable architectural proportions and for the lustrous gold lavished there in fantastic amounts, at an expenditure only to be expected from the legendary Croesus.

Quito, like old Spanish cities, is a city of churches. The number of its churches and chapels has no relation either to the area of the city or to the number of its inhabitants. There is no doubt that its monumental architecture ranks among the finest in America, especially that of South America, whose origin and development can only be explained through it. The churches of San Francisco, of the Jesuits, of El Sagrario, of La Merced, of San Agustín, as well as their convents and monasteries, should be given a place in the history of universal art as outstanding examples of intrinsic merit, worthy of special study. Two of them especially, San Francisco and La Compañía, the Jesuit church, are unique, each an integral whole, full of originality. The architecture of Quito has produced new forms and unsuspected and still undescribed combinations of the greatest interest. In the cloister

of the Convent of San Agustín, for example, the arches of the upper cloister are flattened in comparison with those below, in the Arabic style; in the cloister of San Francisco, there is the column with swelling shaft which came to be characteristic of all colonial architecture; on the church of La Compañía, Salomonic, or rather Bacchic, columns for the first time decorated the exterior of a facade, a detail so curious that since the eighteenth century it has given individuality to all South American architecture—all these were innovations which make the architecture of Quito worth greater study. It would take too long to enumerate and explain in detail the architectural innovations of Quito; for if the architects of Spanish America made no new contribution to the fundamentals of architecture, they did sometimes create delightful combinations hitherto unknown in European art, and an occasional detail of particular interest. To understand American baroque, it will never suffice to know the monuments of Mexico, for the examples of well-considered baroque in Quito, full of innovations interesting to critics and artists, must also be studied. Examples include the delightful arrangement of the apse of the Church of San Francisco, with neo-Flemish and Mudejar elements; the ashlar of the same church and its monastery, in which traces of gold between the great blocks of stone recall the richness of Incan construction; the exaggerated emphasis given to the crowning part of the facades of the churches.

And within these vast reliquaries may be found the sculpture of Quito, polychrome images of virgins and saints and the immense retables of carved wood covered with gold leaf, with which our forefathers satisfied their pride in their wealth, taking pleasure in seeing the temples gleam with light reflected from gold. Therefore they often demanded not only that the sculptors line the chancel and the side chapels of the church with carved and gilded wood, but that they include all inner surfaces of the church. We have already said elsewhere that the Quitan retablo is a true monument to wealth.

Because of all this historical, geographic, artistic, and legendary background (for Quito is reported to be a thousand years old), the Ecuadorean capital is full of attractions and offers an unparalleled welcome. Its medieval color, its patriarchal customs, the calm and repose of its atmosphere, the mildness of its climate, the splendor of its equatorial sun, and its eternal springtime make it the city of calm and repose, where a discriminating and cultured spirit may find what is with much difficulty discovered in this world: peace, the best food for body and soul.

WITH PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT IN LATIN AMERICA



Courtesy of Julius Moritzen.

CAP HAITIEN, HAITI.

En route to Hawaii, President Roosevelt's first call at a neighboring republic was at Cap-Haïtien, where he returned the recent visit of President Sténio Vincent to the United States. A drive through the city and a reception at the Club Union where toasts were drunk, marked his visit to the chief northern port of Haiti. Upper: A general view of Cap-Haïtien from the hills surrounding the city. Lower: President Roosevelt, accompanied by President Vincent, as he was about to depart for the U.S.S. Houston.

WITH PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT IN LATIN AMERICA



Courtesy of Frederick Snare Corporation.



CARTAGENA, COLOMBIA.

Historic Cartagena was the second Latin American port visited by President Roosevelt, where he was greeted by President Olaya Herrera, of Colombia. Upper: The harbor of Cartagena, since the recent extensive improvements, is destined to recover its commercial importance of the past. Center: The terminal put into service February 12, 1934, provides facilities for the largest ocean vessels. Lower: Inside the walled city, founded in 1533, the old and modern are fused in picturesque fashion.

WITH PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT IN LATIN AMERICA



PANAMA.

An enthusiastic welcome was accorded President Roosevelt at the Canal and in Panama. He is the second President of the United States to visit Panama while in office, but the first to pass through the Canal since its opening to traffic 20 years ago. Upper: The Atlantic entrance to the Canal. Lower: The Presidential Palace in the City of Panama. Docking at Balboa, the President was greeted by President Harinodio Arias, of Panama, who was also his host at a banquet at the Presidential Palace.

SOME BRAZILIAN COLONIAL HISTORIANS

By ALAN K. MANCHESTER, Ph.D.

(Part I)

THE history of colonial Brazil lists no roster of institutions such as the twenty universities of colonial Spanish America and yet Portuguese America was not devoid of reputable educational facilities. Primary and secondary schools were run by religious orders, two military academies were in operation during the eighteenth century, and seminaries trained candidates for the priesthood and offered opportunities for advanced study to prelates and to the children of the more cultured class of colonials. The attempt to found a university in Rio de Janeiro about 1776 failed, however, and apparently there were no counterparts in Portuguese America of the universities in Lima, Chuquisaca, or Mexico. A printing press founded in Rio by Antonio da Fonseca in 1747 was suppressed two years later and literary and historical academies were born only to die or be suppressed. Intellectually colonial Brazil undoubtedly was sluggish but to the student who works through the ever-increasing volume of material being issued by scholars and scholarly organizations of Brazil the traditional view of the backwardness of colonial Portuguese America appears overdrawn.

Colonial Brazil produced an honorable list of chroniclers, whose works are just now becoming available to modern historians through the republication of rare original editions or the publication for the first time of manuscripts dug out of archives and libraries. The earlier of these chroniclers were born and trained in Portugal and wrote after emigrating to the colony. Probably the first history of Brazil was published in 1576 by one of these Portuguese emigrants, Pero de Magalhães. He called his work *Historia da Provincia de Santa Cruz*.¹ Several years later a Jesuit priest, Fernão Cardim, after travelling widely on missions throughout Brazil, was captured by an English freebooter, Francis Cook, carried to England, and released. His manuscripts, priceless contemporary accounts, were sold to Cook for twenty shillings, and were published eventually by Purchas in 1625 with the authorship assigned to one Manuel Tristão, a "Portugall who had lived long in Brazil." Over three centuries and a half later the erudite Capistrano de Abreu discovered the true author when he turned up original copies of Fernão Cardim's work in the archives of Lisbon. Another emigrant, Gabriel Soares de

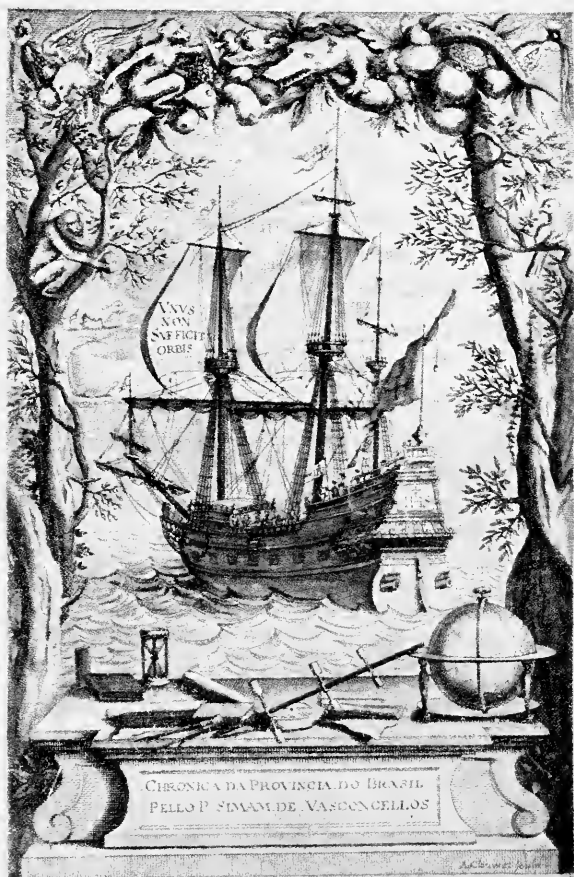
¹ "History of the Province of Santa Cruz."—EDITOR.

Sousa, became lord of a sugar plantation in Bahia and in his leisure time wrote his famous *Roteiro Geral*,² much used by later chroniclers. In 1587 he was in Madrid, peddling his manuscript among possible publishers.

With the seventeenth century came a new generation of Brazilians, native born, trained in colonial ecclesiastical schools, intensely patriotic in their enthusiasm. The first of these chroniclers, Vicente

FRONTISPIECE OF A
HISTORY OF THE
JESUITS IN BRAZIL.

This has been described as
"one of the best works
published in the seven-
teenth century."



do Salvador, finished his account in 1627 while he was living in Bahia. Less than 50 years ago his manuscript was at last made available to the general public when the National Library of Brazil published his *Historia do Brasil* ³ in its *Annaes*. Another of these colonial chroniclers, the Jesuit Simão de Vasconcellos, born in Bahia, published his chronicle of the Jesuits in Brazil in 1663. A third and perhaps the most famous of these early colonial writers was the venerable Sebas-

² "General Voyage."—EDITOR.

³ "History of Brazil," published in the "Annals" of the National Library.—EDITOR.

tião da Rocha Pitta (1660–1738), who was born in Bahia three years before the publication of Vasconcellos' work. He finished his education at Coimbra, Portugal, where he received a degree. Later he returned to Portugal to acquire proficiency in French, Dutch, and Italian, languages which he needed for the collection of material for his history. Afire with the expansionist spirit of the *bandeirantes*,⁴ enthusiastic over the beauties of the colony, he labored for 40 years to produce his *Historia da America Portuguesa*⁵ (Lisbon, 1730). Then, loaded with honors, a noble of the *Casa Real*, a knight of the Order of Christ, and a member of the Academia Real da Historia Portuguesa, rich and venerated, the sun around which revolved the intellectual life of the capital of the colony, he placidly lived out the remaining seven years of his life.

The last of these more famous native-born chroniclers was the Franciscan friar Santa Maria Jaboatão. Like so many of the colonial writers of Brazil whose work remained for centuries in manuscript form or found inadequate and incomplete publication, Jaboatão was able to publish only the first of the two parts into which he divided his *Orbe Serafico Novo Brasilico*⁶ (Lisbon, 1761). The second half finally appeared one hundred years later when the Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute obtained the manuscript, republished the first part, and printed the second half for the first time.

Invaluable as these histories are to the student of today, they are for the most part chronicles, not histories in the modern sense of the word. Some are bombastic; most of them are rather dull compendiums in need of historical interpretation. Often subjective and lyrical, they deal largely with the orders of kings, the decrees of viceroys and captains-general, questions of chronology, the labors of the church, and the physical beauties and possibilities of the colony. Rarely do these authors reveal historical insight into the facts which they record, and one must search through many pages for scattered bits of information on the social and economic life of the common run of colonials.

There were two writers, however, who produced a type of work which often resembles modern history writing. Although they matured in the period of backwash when São Paulo stagnated for well-nigh a century, they possessed the indomitable courage and fire of the *bandeirantes* who had led the captaincy in its amazing career of vitality and expansion. Cut off from literary or cultural associations

⁴ The *bandeirantes* of Brazil were those first explorers from São Paulo who adopted the practice of forming bands, "bandeiras," each with its own chief, and setting out to explore the country, for the discovery of gold and the capture of Indians for slaves, as well as for the purpose of future habitation. The Portuguese word "bandeira" really means "flag," and was adopted because of the fact that each band carried the flag of the Kingdom.—A. d'A. M.

⁵ "History of Portuguese America."—EDITOR.

⁶ "Concerning the Heavenly New Brazilian World."—EDITOR.

which they might have found in Bahia or Rio de Janeiro, they clung to each other. One lived a tragic life, pursued by a malignant fate which beset the family just as he finished school. The other rendered distinguished service to his religious order in Rio de Janeiro; then rich, honored, with a fruitful life's work already accomplished, he returned to Santos at the age of fifty-four to spend over 30 years in simple,

FRONTISPIECE TO THE
"ORBE SERAFICO
NOVO BRASILICO."

The great history of the Franciscan Missions in Brazil contains this fine engraving in which appears a map of the country.



austere retirement in his native province. In the quiet and leisure of this last period he produced the work which entitles him to rank as an historian. Pedro Taques de Almeida Paes Leme wrote under the stress of an active, calamitous life; Gaspar da Madre de Deus wrote in the serenity of retirement. Both produced work of priceless value.

Pedro Taques de Almeida Paes Leme was born in the town of São Paulo late in June 1714. Through his mother and his father he was

related to the best families of his day. Of a line which could be traced with documentary proof to Pedro Taques Pompeo, who came to Brazil in 1591 as secretary to D. Francisco de Souza, seventh governor general of Brazil, he inherited a tradition of distinguished achievements. Among his ancestors were daring *bandeirantes*, influential and erudite ecclesiastics, and municipal and royal officials of the colony. Through his father he was related to the grand old hunter of emeralds, Fernão Dias Paes Leme, and through his mother to Pedro Taques de Almeida, capitão-mor or governor of the captaincy of São Vicente, later São Paulo. In him were united three distinguished lines, the Lemes, the Taques, and the Paes, all noted for large plantation holdings, for rich gold-mining properties, and for honorable public service.

Of the long roster of family names famous in colonial history Pedro Taques was proudest, perhaps, of the sturdy old *bandeirante* Fernão Dias Paes Leme. At the end of an active life of vigorous campaigning in the hinterland, Fernão Dias organized an imposing *bandeira*, largely at his own expense, to search for the elusive mineral riches so eagerly desired by the Lisbon Court. For 7 years the old frontiersman fought hopeless odds: supplies gave out; his companions deserted him; he was forced to hang one of his own sons, José Paes, as the instigator of a mutiny, the purpose of which was to assassinate him; he resupplied himself at his own expense, impoverishing his wife and family; and he finally died on the way out just after he discovered what he considered a region rich in emeralds. He never learned that the bag of precious stones which he so carefully guarded contained relatively worthless colored crystals. He failed to find emeralds in the mountains to the north of Rio de Janeiro, but he did find the route that led into the heart of the mining region and he did lay open the section which a few years after his death became famous as the El Dorado of Brazil. García Rodríguez (his son), Borba Gato (his son-in-law), Mathias Cardoso de Almeida, and others in the *bandeira* were leaders in the gold rush to the fields of Minas Geraes. Pedro Taques was born only 31 years after the death of the old explorer, while some of the *bandeirantes* who had gone on the famous expedition still lived.

He grew up in the enthusiasm of a vigorous tradition of heroic achievement.

He attended the Jesuit school in São Paulo, taking what was offered as the medieval trivium and quadrivium curricula in which he studied grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, and Latin. He also studied philosophy under the famous priest, Estanislau de Campus. He eventually received the degree of master of arts. He soon evinced a penchant for Brazilian history and genealogy, which he developed assiduously under the direction of the Carmelite friar Luiz dos Anjos and the Jesuit José de Mascarenhas.

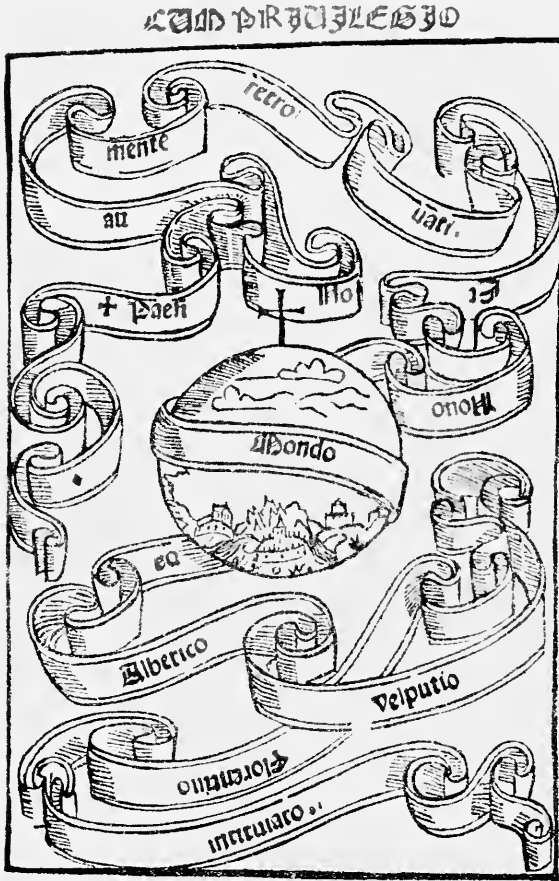
As he was completing his course in the Jesuit school, the evil fate which dogged him to the end of his life descended upon the family. His father, Bartolomeu Paes, a man of fairly substantial means who held a highly honorable but far from lucrative military post in the captaincy, yielded to the lure of great wealth in the gold mines. Two brothers and a brother-in-law had already wrested such riches from the gold fields as to rank them as nabobs. Now Bartolomeu, restless, vigorous, heroic in the tradition of his family, first proposed to open a road to the new gold fields of Cuyabá, won the consent of D. João V, but was rejected for personal reasons by the captain general, Rodrigo Cezar de Menezes. Then with two companions he organized a *bandeira*, spent more than three strenuous, heartbreaking years in the wilds to the north of São Paulo, and finally discovered the gold mines of Goyaz, the third El Dorado of Brazil.

With immense riches within his grasp he was falsely accused of treachery by the new captain general, Antonio da Silva Caldeira Pimentel, thrown into prison, and the grant of lands and mineral rights in rivers in Goyaz was annulled. A brother taking nearly seventy pounds of solid gold as the argument most easily understood by the court set out for Lisbon to right the wrong, only to be assassinated on board ship by a renegade priest from Minas Geraes—Pedro Taques affirms at the instigation of the captain general. The annulment was reaffirmed by the new captain general, and Bartolomeu, undaunted, once more turned to the road project, while Bento Paes, his son who was studying law at Coimbra, pleaded the case before the court. Suddenly on January 1, 1738, Bartolomeu died of the smallpox, leaving a widow, six daughters, the son in Lisbon, Pedro Taques, then 23 years old, a host of creditors, and claims to untold wealth in Goyaz. While the family was still staggering under that blow, news arrived that the son in Lisbon had been drowned as he returned to shore after pleading the cause of the family before the new captain general who was sailing for Brazil.

Pedro Taques took over the tangled affairs of his father, and in seven years liquidated 15,000 cruzados of debts, a sum equal to a fair-sized fortune today. In 1745 he turned over the estate to his mother, and three years later moved to Goyaz to recoup his personal fortunes. There fate was kind to him, for he found favor with the captain general of the newly organized captaincy. He received a government post with the privilege of carrying on mining operations on his own account. He proved an able administrator, cooperating with the captain general in the almost impossible task of collecting the royal fifth. In four years he amassed a modest fortune (equivalent today to 70 or 80 contos). Then weary of the turbulence, the heat and stench, the primitive rawness of the society in which his family

was forced to move, he returned to São Paulo, determined to continue the studies carried on with difficulty during the years when he was untangling his father's affairs and completely interrupted during the years in Goyaz.

Scarcely had he reached São Paulo than he was commissioned by the Count of Vimieiro to secure evidence in support of the count's claims in the celebrated case in which the Counts of Vimieiro and



TITLE PAGE TO AN
EARLY VOLUME ON
AMERICA.

Printed in 1507, the "Paesi
Novamente Retrovati" may
truly be called the first col-
lection of voyages ever com-
piled.

Lumières battled for possession of the income due the rightful heir of the first proprietor of the captaincy of São Vicente. Pedro Taques had won some reputation as a genealogist when in 1742 he had traced the lineage of the historic Bueno family. Now he was commissioned by a high ranking family in Portugal to pore over documents, search through public and private archives, and dig up facts bearing on the earliest history of the region in which he lived. No more congenial task could have been assigned to him.

In 1754 he collected sufficient information to enable him to substantiate the claims of the Count of Vimieiro. Why should he not utilize the evidence as the basis of a personal trip to Lisbon? There he would study, delve into archives, plead once again the family cause, and perchance make valuable connections. He would travel through Europe in the approved manner of the first families of the colony. He arrived in Lisbon early in September 1755, and settled in a house in the Bairro Alto region, the exact center of the famous earthquake which two months after his arrival well nigh razed Lisbon and left over 50,000 dead. Money, clothes, letters of introduction, manuscripts, everything was burned; he escaped with his life but that was all.

Fortunately a relative, D. Isabel Pires Monteiro, a wealthy widow who had married an equally wealthy retired contractor of the Brazilian diamond mines, lived on the outskirts of the city. There he found asylum. Through the influence of the ex-contractor he obtained the lucrative post of treasurer of the *Bulla da Cruzada*⁷ for the district which included the captaincies of São Paulo, Goyaz, and Matto Grosso. To delay in Lisbon thus became impossible, but he did manage to visit the great bibliographer, Diogo Barbosa Machado, and meet the charmed circle of literati of whom he had dreamed in Brazil. He left Portugal in March 1757.

His new post was eminently suited to his tastes. He was to superintend the sale of the papal bulls, the possession of which granted dispensation to the holder from certain of the fasts obligatory on the faithful. A part of the income from this source, so lucrative that it constituted an important item in the Portuguese budget, was devoted to the ransom of Christians held captive by the Barbary pirates. Under his direction were subtreasurers scattered throughout the three captaincies—potential agents for his historical researches. His income, which was sufficient to enable him to live in ease, was increased to an even higher point when in 1763 was added the lucrative superintendency of the mines of the municipality of São Paulo. Financially independent, with a body of agents strategically located, he could turn again to his studies—an inclination which was deepened by catastrophes in his own household. His first wife, whom he had married in 1735, died the year he returned from Portugal. He remarried four years later only to have his second wife die in childbirth the following year. Two children died before the second marriage and his eldest son entered the Carmelite cloister. With something like despair he immersed himself in his studies.

⁷ The Bull of the Crusade, originally granting indulgences to those who fought against the infidel and later to those contributing to holy wars, later included those giving alms, in response to the bull, for the construction and repair of churches and other pious works.—EDITOR.

In the decade following 1757 Pedro Taques did his best work. A leading figure in the cultural and political life of the captaincy, a friend and counselor to the captain-general, he took an active part in the life of the colony. Records show that he sent agents throughout the southern part of Brazil, some of them as far as Paraguay. On what business the records do not say. He himself visited all the public and ecclesiastical and many of the private archives of São Paulo and São Vicente. He worked on the monumental *Nobiliarchia Paulistana Historica e Genealogica*⁸ and produced a number of works which have been lost, such as a history of São Paulo, an account of the discoverers of Brazil, and elements of a history of Piratininga. Perhaps some day copies of these will turn up; for the present we know that he wrote such works and wish ardently that they had been preserved. During this period he led an active, vigorous, productive life.

For ten years, therefore, Pedro Taques lived a full, happy life, respected, financially independent, a power in the captaincy. Then the clouds gathered. Twice a widower, he became enamored of the charms of a widow whose constant request was for money. The father of his second wife, in desperate straits in Rio de Janeiro, pleaded for funds. Loan followed loan—taken from the coffers of the *Bulla da Cruzada*. In 1767 by recourse to desperate remedies and by the aid of his friend Madre de Deus he evaded the exposure which came shortly afterward when an accounting was demanded. An investigation revealed a shortage of the enormous sum of nearly thirteen and a half contos.

Everything went in the crash. His property was put up for auction—a disaster in view of the decadence of São Paulo; every available source was searched for funds to make up the deficit; and his guarantors, who were forced to put up small fortunes in consequence of the bonds which they had signed, hovered over him like hawks to seize any pittance he might acquire. The captaincy in amazement and disgust turned its back upon him. Imprudent, overtrustful, negligent, this he was; dishonest he was not.

For ten years Pedro Taques dragged out a miserable existence. Illness attacked him; a nervous disorder grew so violent that he was unable to write; he could not afford a secretary unless he were undertaking an investigation especially ordered and paid for. It was under these conditions that he wrote by dictation the *Informação sobre as minas de S. Paulo*⁹ and the *Informação sobre o estado das aldeias de índios da capitania de S. Paulo*,¹⁰ both of which were ordered by the

⁸ "Historical and Genealogical Register of the Nobility of São Paulo."—EDITOR.

⁹ Information on the mines of São Paulo."—EDITOR.

¹⁰ Information on the state of the Indian villages of the captaincy of São Paulo."—EDITOR.

captain-general. The first has been preserved; the second disappeared. At the order of the Count of Vimieiro he again turned to the early history of São Vicente, dug up the old evidence prepared in 1754, and adding to it considerably, wrote the *Historia da capitania de S. Vicente*¹¹ which covers the period from 1531 when it was founded to 1714 when it was incorporated in the crown. Painfully he added to the *Nobiliarchia* while he and his family lived in extreme difficulties. He reached the depths, however, when two more of his children died: the Carmelite friar and the younger Balduino who had remained his inseparable companion in adverse fortune and had served as the amanuensis when secretaries were no longer possible.

Lemay 2 Oatay 12 de Mayo de 1764
 Vossa Vm. foy de novo de parte me qua com
 bar na minha inutilidade. E de novo de parte me qua
 service. M. J. de Almeida Paes Leme
 1764

Lemay

M. J. de Almeida Paes Leme

Pedro Taques de Almeida Paes Leme

From "Revista do Instituto Historico e Geographico Brasileiro."

FACSIMILE OF AUTOGRAPH OF PEDRO TAQUES DE ALMEIDA PAES LEME.

From a letter in the Paulista Museum, São Paulo.

In a last effort to secure funds sufficient to relieve the members of his family of the crushing debt which they would inherit at his death, he turned once more to the court in the hope of receiving some compensation for the wrong done his father 50 years earlier. He could count on the friendship of influential personages in Lisbon, notably the Count of Vimieiro and two brothers from Rio de Janeiro, distantly related to him, who had risen to important positions in Portugal. One of these brothers, João Pereira Ramos de Azeredo Coutinho, came into possession of copies of many chapters of the *Nobiliarchia*—and it is to this fact that we are indebted for the preservation of much of the monumental work. The Azeredo Coutinhos were two

¹¹ History of the captaincy of São Vicente."—EDITOR.

of the very few who glimpsed the value of Pedro Taques' work. It was largely at their suggestion that he undertook a second trip to Lisbon.

The receipt of a part of his share of an inheritance left by a relative in Cuyabá enabled him to make the trip. Almost an invalid, he sailed in 1774 to plead once more for justice. Months passed while his petition slumbered among the papers of the powerful Marquis of Pombal. The paralysis which had afflicted him since the catastrophe of the *Bulla da Cruzada* grew so much worse that a return to Brazil was imperative if he wished to die in his cherished São Paulo. Sick at heart, he embarked in August of 1776. Just at sailing time Azeredo Coutinho rushed on board with news that the petition for 15,000 cruzados compensation had been granted by the king. The promise had been given; would it be carried out?

Early in March of the following year the end came. As yet no sign of payment of any part of the compensation had been received. The family on whom his obligations would fall consisted of one daughter by his first marriage, the third wife, whom he had married in 1769 when he was 55 and she was 20, four small daughters by the last marriage, and two septuagenarian sisters. So poor was he that he could order only 8 masses said for his soul instead of the 200 he ardently desired. He still owed considerable sums to religious orders, private creditors, and guarantors. To offset his obligations he had the rest of his part of the Cuyabá inheritance and the promise of 15,000 cruzados from the royal treasury. On March 3, 1777, he died and was buried in the Carmelite cemetery in São Paulo. Eleven days before, D. José I had died and Pombal had fallen—and the anti-Pombal reaction cancelled the payment of the 15,000 cruzados.

Pedro Taques died discredited and forgotten; the work which constituted the major interest of his life suffered a like fate. His manuscripts fell into the hands of those who, in his own words, considered them useful mainly as tapers for celebrations on St. John's Eve. Of the work on which he spent fifty years of incessant, indefatigable labor, the *Nobiliarchia Paulistana*, there survived some twenty-four chapters. In them are cross references to seventy-three chapters which have been lost, and there is no certainty that these references tell the full tale of the number of chapters actually written. The part published by the Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute takes twelve hundred octavo pages printed in medium type; if the remainder were in proportion, the work as actually written would have taken well over three thousand printed pages. Beginning in 1742 with the Bueno family he labored persistently on the project until the very end of his life for, though half-dead with paralysis and so feeble that he was forced to hasten his return in order to die in

Brazil, he attempted on his last trip to Lisbon to check his statements in the *Torre do Tombo*.¹² To have accomplished a work so colossal in scope and so dependent on archive research in eighteenth century Brazil at a time when travel was incredibly difficult and dependable assistants practically unavailable constitutes an achievement which ranks with any exploit of his *bandeirante* ancestry.

The last ineffectual trip to Lisbon resulted in one stroke of rare fortune, for he left copies of many chapters with his friend João Pereira Ramos de Azeredo Coutinho, who with his brother realized the value of the work. Through devious channels these chapters,



SÃO VICENTE AND SANTOS.

This old print shows an early view of the port for São Paulo.

together with additional parts found in random archives and in forgotten heaps of discarded paper, were delivered to the Brazilian Historical and Geographical Institute where they found worthy reception. Of the vast amount of work actually written and of his voluminous correspondence there have survived: the mutilated *Nobiliarchia Paulistana*, the *Historia da Capitania de S. Vicente*, the *Informação sobre as Minas de S. Paulo*, the *Noticia Historica da Expulsão dos Jesuítas de S. Paulo em 1640*,¹³ and six letters.

Why is the work of Pedro Taques worthy the esteem in which it is held by the modern historian? Why should a work, however vol-

¹² The national archives of Portugal.—EDITOR.

¹³ "Historical account of the Expulsion of the Jesuits from São Paulo in 1640."—EDITOR.

uminous, which is devoted to tracing the lineage of some hundred families of the captaincies of São Paulo and Rio de Janeiro acquire the value to which the *Nobiliarchia* has unquestionably attained? The answer is threefold. In the first place, Pedro Taques does more than list the names of children and dates of birth, marriage, and death. The work is a series of biographies ranging from a line or two in some cases to over forty pages devoted to the emerald hunter, Fernão Dias Paes Leme. In these biographies he presents a mass of factual information of infinite value to the historian—the locality in which the character lived, his occupation, his possessions, the main events of his life, the evil and the good that he did, the services rendered to family, captaincy, and sometimes to king, careful transcripts of acts of *camaras* and other bodies, letters, wills, land grants, and other official documents. The men he pictures were the men who pushed the frontier back from the line set by the treaty of 1494 between Spain and Portugal until Brazil came to comprise four times its original territory. To the north, skirting the frontier of the coast captaincies, they crossed the Divide into the Amazon region; to the west they penetrated to Peru, Bolivia, and Paraguay; to the south they pushed as far as La Plata. The captaincy of São Paulo sprawled over the interior until it expanded beyond all possible limits of efficient organization and vast commonwealths such as Minas Geraes, Goyaz, Matto Grosso, Santa Catharina, Paraná, and even Rio Grande do Sul were organized, leaving São Paulo shorn of the results of its labors. The *Nobiliarchia* is the record of that expansionist movement—one of the remarkable movements of history.

In the second place, Pedro Taques demanded documentary proof for what he wrote down. He carefully related what his master José de Mascarenhas told him of many families of São Paulo, but he added that he had never found documents to support these bits of information. He fulminates against Rocha Pitta, the venerated dean of history writers of his day, as one who “accepted as true history whatever information came to hand without further scrutiny on the assumption that all facts related to the writer are true.” With infinite patience he labored for hours deciphering sixteenth century script, spending a day on a few lines. That he erred at times is undoubtedly true, but his passion for exactness and certainty based on documentary proof gives him a modern note—and lends authenticity to statements on archive material long since destroyed.

In the third place, Pedro Taques turned his back on the pomp of purple and fanfare of royal decrees and official acts to recount the common life of the colonial. He concentrated on one class of colonial, the upper stratum of the inhabitants of the São Paulo region; but of their lives he recounts the human side. He dwells with great care and

seriousness on the intimate phases of the daily existence of these colonials—their dress, their diet, their household furnishings, their play and loves and hates; their nicknames, their physical appearance, their ambitions. It is social history written by one close enough to ascertain the type of details that pass and leave such scant record. History to him was the tale of human beings, not the record of kings and royal governors; it was the story of single individuals who lived, worked, and died, and contributed in a greater or less degree to a movement significant in the development of Brazil. There is much of the modern in that conception.

(To be continued)

RADIO IN LATIN AMERICA

By VICTOR H. SUTRO

(Part I)¹

BEFORE discussing the broadcasting stations of Latin America, it might be well to speak of the beginnings of radio in the United States. As early as 1916 Dr. Lee DeForest, a pioneer radio experimenter, had developed a means of transmitting sounds by wireless, but little was known of his attempts. Broadcasting had its real inception in the garage of a Pittsburgh amateur, Dr. Frank Conrad, in 1919. His station was called 8XK. The Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company saw possibilities in the broadcasting of entertainment by radio and backed his experimental work; early in 1920 a limited commercial license was secured for the station, and the call letters KDKA were assigned. In 1921 Westinghouse engineers built WJZ in Newark, New Jersey. Station WBZ at Springfield, Massachusetts, and Station WEAJ in New York came next, and others were soon erected in the larger cities of the country.

The first South American broadcast was that of the complete opera *Parsifal* from the Coliseo Theatre of Buenos Aires, on August 26, 1920, by Radio Argentina. This station continued to broadcast almost daily over a small area, giving the music of many of the operas performed at the Coliseo Theatre. The first Uruguayan broadcast was from the roof of the Hotel Florida in Montevideo on November 14, 1922, by the station of Don Sebastián Paradizábal. Its distance record in those days was made by exchanging radiotelegraphic communications with the Danish steamship *Anne*, which was near Cape Horn.

¹ Part II, which will be published next month, will discuss radio programs, governmental regulation, and the educational use of radio in Latin America.

STATIONS IN LATIN AMERICA

The accompanying table gives the number, kilocycle frequencies, wave lengths in meters, and power in kilowatts of the long-wave radio stations in the various Latin American countries:

Country	No.	Frequency: kc.	Wave length: m.	Power: kw.
Argentina.....	40	590-1, 430	508-210	0. 05-30.
Brazil.....	42	740-1, 430	410-210	0. 05-12.
Chile.....	57	590-1, 460	517-205	0. 01-1.
Colombia.....	5	690-1, 200	434-250	0. 02-2.
Costa Rica.....	13	550-1, 450	545-207	0. 0075-. 5.
Cuba.....	52	590-1, 382	508-217	0. 015-3.15.
Dominican Republic.....	4	598-1, 395	501-215	0. 01-15.
Ecuador.....	2	1, 153-1, 250	260-240	0. 03-. 3.
El Salvador.....	1	680	441	0. 5.
Guatemala.....	2	1, 350-1, 380	222-217	0. 075-. 5.
Haiti.....	1	920	326	1.
Honduras.....	1	1, 270	236	0. 1.
Mexico.....	68	560-1, 420	538-211	0. 005-150.
Nicaragua.....	4	850	352-232	0. 05-. 25.
Paraguay.....	4	1, 000-1, 465	300-205	0. 15-1.
Peru.....	8	750-1, 443	400-208	0. 025-1. 5.
Uruguay.....	35	610-1, 480	492-203	0. 01-5.
Venezuela.....	6	750-1, 200	400-250	0. 02-5.
Total.....	345	550-1, 480	545-203	0. 005-150.

Buenos Aires has 22 long-wave stations, of which LR5 is of 30 kw, LR4 of 16 kw, LR3 of 14 kw, LR10 of 11 kw, and LS8 of 10 kw. Mexico has a 150 kw station, XENT, at Nuevo Laredo, Tamaulipas; one of 50 kw, XEPN, at Piedras Negras, Coahuila; and one of 50 kw, XEW, in Mexico City. She has three stations of 10 kw and four of 5 kw. Many of her stations are of .5, .25, or .1 kw. Mexico has the most radio stations and the most powerful long-wave stations of any Latin American country. Five of her stations are still under construction.

The Latin American short-wave stations are given below:

Country	No.	Frequency: kc	Wave-length: m	Power: kw
Argentina.....	3	7, 080-10, 350	42. 37-28. 99	12.
Bolivia.....	1	6, 080- 9, 120	49. 30-32. 89	
Brazil.....	2	8, 185- 8, 186	36. 65	12.
Colombia.....	10	5, 952- 7, 400	50. 40-40. 55	0. 1-0. 3.
Costa Rica.....	2	6, 080-11, 790	49. 34-25. 45	
Cuba.....	2	5, 995- 6, 040	50 -49. 67	0. 02.
Dominican Republic.....	3	5, 953- 6, 320	50. 40-47. 50	0. 01.
Ecuador.....	3	4, 110- 6, 676	73 -44. 93	0. 15-10.
Guatemala.....	1	6, 180	48. 50	
Honduras.....	1	6, 005-11, 740	49. 96-25. 55	0. 35-0. 36.
Mexico.....	1	9, 600	31. 25	
Nicaragua.....	2	6, 035-11, 890	49. 71-25. 23	1.
Peru.....	2	6, 235- 7, 160	48. 10-42	
Venezuela.....	5	6, 072- 9, 500	49. 39-31. 56	
Total.....	38	4, 110-11, 890	73 -25. 23	0. 01-12.

The total number of both long- and short-wave stations in Latin America is 383. There are about 1,054,300 receiving sets in use in Latin America, 600,000 of which are in Argentina.

Among the Buenos Aires stations, we find that LR 5, Radio Excel-sior, last year installed a new broadcasting station at Monte Grande, about 11 miles from Buenos Aires. The antenna is 689 feet high, the highest and possibly the most technically perfect in South America. This station is very powerful. The Marconi transmitter, of English construction, is used. The station is situated in the open country, away from surroundings which might interfere with the quality of the transmission. LSS, Radio Sténtor, has a Philips transmitter from Holland, of 30 kw power, the radius of which is about 2,200 miles. The antenna is 413 feet high. This is the most modern and expensive transmitter yet installed in South America, but it apparently is not being operated at its full power. The station offers an alternation



Courtesy of the International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation.

A RADIO TRANSMITTING STATION, BUENOS AIRES, ARGENTINA.

Commercial radiotelephonic communication with New York was inaugurated in 1930. Now Argentina has radio connections with most of the world.

of sung and spoken numbers. Television is occupying the attention of those in charge of LR4, Radio Splendid.

LV7, Radio Tucumán, will this year undergo important modifications. Among these is an increase in power to 5 kw, so that it will be able to cover the northern section of the country in any weather conditions and at any time of day; this will make Radio Tucumán the great broadcasting station of northern Argentina. Its programs will be improved by the inclusion of important musical and literary numbers. Periodically the microphone of this station will be taken to the most important towns in the interior of the Province of Tucumán, as well as to those in the neighboring Province of Santiago del Estero, from which there will be broadcast important local numbers.

In Lima the Argentine stations LR3, LR6, LR9, and others are heard with great volume and clarity. The improvement in the Argentine radio stations has been favorably noted in Peru. LR3, Radio Nacional, can also be heard well in Colombia.

On September 21, 1933, the first day of the Argentine spring, a banquet for those connected with radio in Argentina was held in Buenos Aires at the Castelar Hotel. This was sponsored by the *Asociación Nacional de Broadcasters Argentinos* and by the *Unión de Industriales y Comerciantes de Radio*. It is hoped to establish September 21 as an annual Radio Day.

The first radiotelephonic communication between Berlin and Buenos Aires was effected August 3, 1927, by the Telefunken Company at Nauhen, Germany, using wave-lengths of 14.90 and 17.30 meters. This was apparently the first radiotelephonic connection to be made with Latin America. The circuit was put into commercial service December 10, 1928. The first commercial radiotelephonic service between the United States and Latin America was commenced April 3, 1930, between New York and Buenos Aires. Argentina now has direct radiotelephone connection with the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and Brazil. She has wire telephone connection with Chile, Uruguay, and Paraguay, and Chile's radiotelephone service with Peru connects the latter country with Argentina. Argentina also has indirect radiotelephone connection with Nicaragua, Mexico, Cuba, Canada, Hawaii, Belgium, Luxemburg, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland, Egypt, Java, the Philippines, Siam, South Africa, Australia, and many other countries. The longest circuit in regular use by the *Compañía Unión Telefónica* of Buenos Aires is that to Sydney, Australia, a distance of 17,616 miles, by way of the British Post Office Station at Rugby, England. The telephones of 48 countries, including all continents and many islands, as well as most of the larger ocean liners, are available to most of the South American countries.

On December 1, 1932, direct radiotelegraph service was inaugurated between Tokio and Buenos Aires, with the exchange of messages by the respective Ministers of Foreign Relations and of Communications. The Mackay Radio and Telegraph Company of San Francisco has direct radiotelegraph communication with Buenos Aires, as well as with Lima, Bogotá, and with Camagüey in Cuba.

Argentine, Uruguayan, and certain North American stations are regularly heard in Bolivia, the North American broadcasts being made by short wave. The La Paz short-wave station Illimani, the highest in the world (13,400 feet), is using a considerable amount of its program time for patriotic propaganda, under the direction of the *Centro de Propaganda y Defensa Nacional* of La Paz. Most of the



Courtesy of Compañía Radio Boliviana.

THE ILLIMANI SHORT-WAVE STATION, LA PAZ, BOLIVIA.

This new station, situated at an altitude of 13,400 feet above sea level, has the distinction of being the highest radio station in the world. Upper: A general view of the station and antennae, with Mount Illimani in the background. Lower: The building containing the transmitting apparatus.

receiving sets are in La Paz, though the radio is becoming increasingly popular in Cochabamba, Oruro, and other places. No taxes are levied on the ownership of receiving sets. The large sets can receive long wave from Buenos Aires at least, and short-wave adapters are usually bought with these sets for the reception of transmissions from Paris, Rio de Janeiro, Schenectady, and Pittsburgh. Paris appears to be the most reliable of these for reception in La Paz during most of the year. The American stations, however, are often clearest in other parts of the country. During the summer period, from November to March, short-wave reception is very poor.

Brazil has direct radiotelephone connection with the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, Spain, Italy, and Argentina; and indirect connection with Canada, Cuba, Mexico, Uruguay, Chile, Colombia, Peru, Portugal and other parts of Europe, Egypt, South Africa, and other countries. The service between the United States and Brazil has been extended further to penetrate the southern Republic.

CE94, *La Chilena Consolidada*, of Santiago, Chile, was started about two years ago. The station was assembled entirely in Chile, and is the only one there having the studio built entirely of celotex instead



THE MUNICIPAL THEATER, SANTIAGO.

Santiago's leading radio station, "La Chilena Consolidada", has included on its programs broadcasts of numerous operas from this theater.

of being hung with the customary curtains. It is one of the largest in the country and has extremely good acoustic conditions. The control room, adjacent to the studio, is equipped with the most modern RCA amplifiers. A portable outfit is used in picking up concerts and operas at different theatres in Santiago. During the first 18 months of operation, *La Chilena Consolidada* broadcast at least 20 operas from the Municipal Theatre. The station has also broadcast interesting programs from other countries, such as two of President Roosevelt's speeches, the address of the King of England at the opening of the World Economic Conference, and many others. There was a rebroadcast of a performance at the Colón Theatre in Buenos Aires that lasted five hours.

This station was the first in Chile to use high-power water-cooled tubes and high-voltage mercury-vapor rectifier tubes. The transmitter is linked with the studio through special telephone lines. At the present time, *La Chilena Consolidada* is working 8½ hours daily. It has many foreign listeners. Owing to topography, Santiago stations are not heard well in Valparaíso and its environs. Therefore *La Chilena Consolidada* installed a retransmitting station a year ago. The Valparaíso studio is linked every night from nine to eleven with the Santiago station by a special leased telephone circuit. The rest of the day the Valparaíso station operates from its own studio. This was the first Chilean chain.

The orchestra of *La Chilena Consolidada* is composed of 12 musicians, said to be among the best in Chile. The station maintains a corps of about 50 performers, consisting of singers, comedians, and others. A sort of stock company puts on plays every Sunday evening from nine to twelve. *La Hora Inglesa* was planned as an hour entirely announced and performed in English.

Chile has direct radiotelephone connection with Peru, Colombia, and Spain; and indirect communication with the United States, Canada, Cuba, Mexico, Brazil, Nicaragua, Europe, Australia, the Dutch East Indies, Siam, Egypt, and other countries. She has wire telephone connection with Argentina and Uruguay.

Because of the difficult topography of Colombia, which makes the building and upkeep of telegraph lines very costly, extensive use has been made of radiotelephony. The Telefunken Company has built various radio stations in the principal Colombian cities, including one at Bogotá, so that there is a well-developed radiotelephonic network for communication within the country. In March of this year, the radiotelegraph station of Puerto Carreño was officially opened, connecting this distant town with the rest of the Republic.

Colombia, Venezuela, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama have direct radiotelephone connection with the United States through the new station at Hialeah, Florida, near Miami. This puts them in connection with telephones in Canada, Cuba, Mexico, and Europe. Colombia also has direct radiotelephone communication with Venezuela and Chile. Venezuela has direct connection with Germany and Spain. Nicaragua has indirect connection with Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay.

Cartago and San José de Costa Rica both have several radio stations. In the Dominican Republic, there is the powerful Government-owned Station HIX of Santo Domingo, as well as local stations in the capital and in other cities. All serve as instruments for the diffusion of culture, broadcasting lectures, concerts, and so on.

Guatemala has two radio stations, both in Guatemala City. TGW is controlled by the Ministry of Public Works, while TGX is

privately owned, by the *Partido Liberal Progresista*. Advertisements by local individuals and firms are broadcast by Station TGX for an hour each evening for 25 centavos. In Tegucigalpa, Honduras, the frequent fluctuations in the voltage of the electric current interfere with the perfect reception of radio programs.

On April 7, 1934, Station XEW inaugurated its new broadcasting power of 50 kw, as against 5 kw before. This Mexico City station has now become one of the most powerful in the world. There are only 10 like it in the United States, and very few in Europe. The new equipment was manufactured by RCA-Victor and is of the latest type. It was installed by the *Cadena Radiodifusora Mexicana*,



DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATIONS AND PUBLIC WORKS, MEXICO CITY.

With government cooperation and control through the Department of Communications and Public Works the radio industry has grown enormously. The number of broadcasting stations in the country has increased from 4 in 1930 to 69 in 1934.

S.A., the proprietors of the station. Four years ago, when XEW began its broadcasts, there were only three other radio stations in Mexico. XEW soon became the norm of what a radio station should be. Its broadcasts are known under the name of *La Voz de la América Latina desde México* (The Voice of Latin America from Mexico). On the first program broadcast with increased power were a native orchestra and singers of folk-songs; several symphony orchestras, with vocal soloists and choral ensembles; and a number of dance orchestras. The following day *Aida* was heard through this station.

Mexico and Cuba have wire telephone connection with the United States, and through the United States with Canada and each other.

They have a connection with Europe via radiotelephone from New York, and with many Latin American countries by means of radiotelephone from New York or Miami.

In September 1933, at the unveiling in Managua of the monument to the Nicaraguan poet, Rubén Darío, the broadcasting station YNLF, Le Franc, transmitted the speeches throughout the Republic. This was the first time that a public ceremony had been broadcast in Nicaragua. Station YN-CRG is situated in Granada, Nicaragua. The railway radio station, in Rivas, is lending its services to the Nicaraguan Government for the broadcasting of official communications.

Commercial radiotelephone communication has been inaugurated between Peru and Chile. The Presidents, the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, and representatives of the press of both countries conversed at the opening of the service, as did the United States ambassadors to the two countries. From Lima the wave goes by aerial and subterranean conductors through the central of the *Compañía Peruana de Teléfonos* and the technical control-office of the All-America Cables, Inc., to the transmitting station of Valverde, south of Lima. It is then sent through space and is received by the antenna of the Chilean station of Lo Aguirre, and from there goes through the two Santiago centrals of the *Compañía Internacional de Radio* to its destination. On its return journey, the wave traverses the same two Chilean centrals, is launched into space by the La Granja radio station, and is received by the antenna of the All-America Cables on the Bocanegra farm, north of Lima. It then crosses the two Lima centrals to its destination. The short-wave is used in this service. Radiotelephone service has also been inaugurated between Peru and Argentina through a Lima station under control of the All-America Cables, thus giving a connection between Peru and Uruguay and Brazil. Peru has direct radiotelephone communication with the United States and hence has a connection with Canada, Cuba, Mexico, and Europe.

Station OAX of Lima has been heard as far away as Costa Rica and New Zealand. It is felt that the establishment of more radio stations throughout Peru would help to bind all the sections of that extensive and mountainous country more closely together.

Uruguay has wire telephone connection with Argentina and Chile and hence has indirect radiotelephone communication with the United States, Canada, Cuba, Mexico, Nicaragua, Peru, Brazil, Europe, Egypt, Siam, Australia, and other countries.

Short-wave radiotelegraph service has been established between Montevideo and Rio de Janeiro to expedite business transactions. This will also permit Uruguay to centralize her messages for North America and Europe in her short-wave station Telefunken, in the important Cerrito radio station, and to distribute them by means of the powerful Brazilian station, Sepetiba. Along this same line of



Courtesy of the International Telephone & Telegraph Corporation.

RADIO RECEIVING STATION, RIO DE JANEIRO, BRAZIL.

Since its inauguration in 1931, when Rio de Janeiro was linked by radiotelephony with the United States, Mexico, Cuba, and Canada, Brazil's commercial radio service has been continuously extended.

development is the announcement that the Uruguayan Government has signed an agreement with the Havas News Agency of France for increasing the power of the Cerrito radiotelegraph station, in order to effect an important transoceanic press service. The French Radio-electric Society will invest in these improvements the sum of 937,000 francs, and Havas will be permitted to use the Cerrito station for 90 minutes daily for a period of 10 years.

The examples cited above indicate the increasing degree in which the Latin American countries are becoming linked by radio with one another and with the outside world.

LATIN AMERICAN STATIONS HEARD IN THE UNITED STATES

A number of Latin American stations can be heard in short-wave in the United States. Among these may be noted YV1BC and YV3BC of Caracas, Venezuela; YV5BMO of Maracaibo, Venezuela; HJ1ABB of Barranquilla, Colombia; HC2RL of Guayaquil, Ecuador; OAX of Lima, Peru; CP5 of La Paz, Bolivia; XETE of Mexico City; HIZ of Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic; and COC, CMC, and CMBZ of Havana, Cuba. On February 24, 1934, the two latter stations combined in broadcasting in short-wave to the United States and other parts of the American mainland the speech of President Mendieta, in which he explained the point of view of his Government

in regard to the Cuban situation at that time and asked the cooperation of all classes in Cuba in order to bring to fulfillment the task of reconstruction and normalization which the Provisional Government had in mind. In addition to such weightier matters, good dance music—tangos and rumbas—played by native orchestras, can be heard in the evening over many of these stations.

As an interesting development for the future, attention should be drawn to the fact that by proclamation of the President of the United States five short-wave channels, with frequencies of 6120, 9550, 11730, 15130, and 21500 kilocycles, have been allotted for the exclusive use of the Republics, members of the Pan American Union. The plan for the use of these channels calls for the installation of a 15-kilowatt short-wave transmitter in each capital, with special provision for reaching all the republics with programs between 6 p.m. and midnight. The situation of the Republics is ideal for radio transmission, since there is but little difference in time among the several countries, and the power required for north and south projection is only one-third of that needed for east and west projection. The Seventh International Conference of American States meeting at Montevideo, Uruguay, last December, adopted a resolution urging the several Governments to install as promptly as possible the equipment necessary for utilizing these assigned frequencies. It also directed the Pan American Union to formulate a plan for the assignment of the time during which these frequencies are to be used, and to recommend to the Governments the types of program best adapted to fulfill the purposes of these international broadcasts. The Pan American Union is proceeding to carry out these instructions, and it is to be expected that in a relatively short time, since so many of the Latin American Governments already have national broadcasting facilities, it will be possible for Americans, sitting comfortably in their homes, to listen to music from the opera house in Buenos Aires, an address by the President of Chile, or some other program from the far south.

AMATEUR RADIO STATIONS IN LATIN AMERICA

Amateur broadcasters in various parts of the world have contributed much to the progress of radio and have been particularly important in the development of short-wave broadcasting. In Latin America we find many amateur radio clubs, the first of which was probably the *Radio Club Argentino*, founded in Buenos Aires in September 1921, with more than 70 members. What was heard over the radio in those days was radiotelegraph messages from the official Dársena radio station and talks and questions from three or four amateur broadcasters. The channels sometimes got mixed, and reception was consequently exceedingly bad. Even in 1920, before the founding

of the Club, radiotelephonic conversations were being carried on by amateurs in Argentina. In 1923 some short-wave radio amateurs organized the *Rueda del Oeste*, or Western Circuit. The officers keep a very strict control over the members, who are found not only in Argentina, but also in Uruguay, Brazil, Chile, and Paraguay, and who now number about 350. The organization holds an annual banquet in Buenos Aires. This circuit has on several occasions been of real usefulness, as for instance by notifying Buenos Aires of the urgent need of medicine or antitoxin on some outlying ranch.

There are amateur radio clubs in Bolivia, Brazil, Peru, and Uruguay, and probably in some of the other Latin American countries, and a South American League of Radio Amateurs has been projected. Amateur radio stations in Brazil had almost died out, due to the high taxes on them for several years and to political restrictions. But last year the President of the LABRE (*Liga de Amadores Brasileiros de Radio Emissores*) conferred with Government officials and secured a reduction in the annual tax to 10 milreis and provisional licenses for all the amateurs, permitting them to operate freely. The LABRE assumed responsibility for seeing that the pertinent Government regulations were complied with. An amateur radio network, the *Rede Brasileiro de Radio-Amadores*, was founded in Rio de Janeiro last year to coordinate the activities of amateur broadcasters. It will have ramifications in all the Brazilian States.

The decline in numbers of Chilean radio amateurs, though partly due to the depression, is principally a result of the high prices of valves, condensers, and other parts. In Colombia, the amateur station HJ4ABA of Medellín, operating in 46 and 42.25 meters in short-wave radiotelegraphy, can be heard at a considerable distance. The amateur station HC2RL of Guayaquil, Ecuador, has been heard in Lima in short-wave, and station OAX of Lima has been heard by this Guayaquil station. The Peruvian Radio Club broadcasts for an hour and a half on Saturday evenings and has made some transmissions in short-wave. Last year it gave a short course in radio engineering to a group of students. Several amateurs in Peru have communicated with foreign countries, including Spain.

From August 1 to August 15, 1933, the Montevideo Radio Club held a short-wave radiotelephonic contest. There were prizes for the amateurs in Uruguay finishing with the greatest number of points, the number of points secured for communicating with stations in different parts of South America depending on the distance of those stations from Montevideo. For amateurs in South American countries other than Uruguay, there were prizes for those communicating with the most amateurs participating in the contest. On August 23 of last year the *Radio Club Uruguayo* was founded in Montevideo, under the presidency of Señor Luis Batlle Vila.

THE LAND OF FIRE

By W. S. CULBERTSON, Ph.D., LL.D.

I LEFT Punta Arenas in a scout boat of the Chilean Navy—the *Micalvi*. The Straits of Magellan were calm. The sun sank in a blaze of red beyond Cape Froward. Then for days we steamed slowly through the channels of Tierra del Fuego—the land of fire—a land desolate but marvellously beautiful. Barren rocks, smooth from the constant beating of the storms. Morasses and peaty bogs. Stunted, wind-twisted trees whose shapes testify to the force and the prevailing direction of the winds. Uninviting thickets interlaced with parasites, lichens, and ferns. Mountains covered with perpetual ice fields from which flow to the water's edge vast glaciers.

Beagle Channel is the most striking of the many waterways which in that part of the world make the grandeurs of nature a commonplace. It is a fitting monument to the men who on the ship *Beagle* made the first scientific survey of Tierra del Fuego. It was discovered by Captain Fitz Roy of the *Beagle* and studied by Charles Darwin, who was with the ship on one of its later voyages. Darwin compares it with the valley of Loch Ness in Scotland. It runs with hardly a deviation east and west for over a hundred miles. It is a couple of miles wide. On its northern shore rises the Darwin range, and dozens of glaciers grind their way down the valleys and throw off their icebergs into its waters.

Opposite the Argentine town of Ushuaia a channel runs southward and opens into Ponsonby Sound. In that direction too lies Cape Horn, but the locality has a special interest of its own; it was the haunt of the Yaghan Indians, in particular of Jemmy Button and his tribe.

Now Jemmy Button is the most famous individual who ever lived in the Land of Fire. Jemmy was a canoe Indian, and when a boy was purchased for some trifles, including a pearl button (hence his name) by Captain Fitz Roy of the *Beagle* during a voyage in 1826–30. The good captain took him and several other Yaghans to England where they were to be instructed in religion and in other ways civilized. In 1833 the *Beagle* with Charles Darwin aboard was bringing Jemmy and two others (Fuegia Basket and York Minster) back to their native habitat. They were landed in a little cove called Woollya (Wulaia) on Ponsonby Sound and their tribe gathered in their canoes to see the results of civilization. From the family hearths kept smouldering in every canoe fires of welcome were lighted along the shores. A missionary, called Matthews, was also put ashore. In



From "Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle" published in 1839.

MURRAY NARROW OF BEAGLE CHANNEL.

Discovered by Captain Fitz Roy of the "Beagle" on its voyage of circumnavigation of the globe more than a century ago, the channel is a fitting monument to the men on that vessel.

about a week the *Beagle* came back. It seemed best to take Matthews away. Jemmy, Fuegia, and York had not brought back enough civilization to go around. Their tribe insisted upon taking everything they could lay their hands on. They took everything Matthews had and in a short time probably would have taken his life.

Jemmy himself soon shed his clothes. A year later Darwin returned to Woollya. "Soon," he says, "a canoe, with a little flag flying, was seen approaching, with one of the men in it washing the paint off his face. The man was poor Jemmy,—now a thin haggard savage, with long disordered hair, and naked except a bit of blanket around his waist. We did not recognize him till he was close to us; for he was ashamed of himself, and turned his back to the ship. We had left him plump, fat, clean, and well dressed;—I never saw so complete and grievous a change."

Almost one hundred years after this little drama I visited the same quiet cove of Woollya (Wulaia). The Yaghans no longer light their signal fires along the channels nor paddle their canoes along the shores in search of mussels. A few linger between savagery and civilization—being of neither—but the race has all but vanished.

On shore I found two or three buildings for the authorities of the region and for a couple of Yugoslavs who have lived there over 30 years. Civilization has made no conquest there. Around the little land-locked harbor there is some pasture. It was summer time and, for that far southern latitude, a commendable effort was being made to grow vegetables and flowers. But the winters are long and fierce, and back of the water's edge the land rises quickly to the boggy, desolate hinterland of Navarino.

I thought of Jemmy and Fuegia. I asked for their people. I found only one,—Fritz who was taking care of the cattle. He spoke English;

JEMMY BUTTON, 1833.

The veneer of civilization acquired during several years of education in England was quickly lost on his return to the Land of Fire.



From "Voyages of the Adventure and Beagle" published in 1839.

he had learned it from one of his early masters. He was clothed, i.e., his body was covered. He had ceased to be a savage—that is, he does not do the things he wants to do—he works.

Allen Gardiner is the pioneer (except for the effort made by Captain Fitz Roy) and the first martyr of Christian missions to the Yaghans. In 1850 he and his party landed on Peeton Island which lies on the south side of the Beagle Channel just east of Navarino. Lack of adequate preparation and hostile Yaghans almost immediately foreshadowed the tragedy to come.

Nothing suggested want and suffering on that summer day when our steamer passed Gardiner Island and entered the little harbor, now

called Banner. The wooded hills round about were brilliant in the soft warm sunshine. Flowers covered the little islands. Even the wind was not boisterous. I knew that the day, if not an illusion, was an exception. I tried to visualize the hardships of Allen Gardiner. I landed and stood before the crude inscription on the rock that faces the entrance to the little bay. Legible yet after 80 years, I could read the irregular letters of the message:

DIG BELOW
GONE TO SPANIARD HARBOUR
MARCH 1851

Leaving their sad story buried, the Gardiner party, driven out by the Yaghans, went across the Channel to Spaniard Harbour and there died from exposure and scurvy.

A few years later another disaster befell missions among the Yaghans—this time in the very home of Jemmy and Fuegia. During that day when I was in Wulaia I was shown the spot where eight members of a missionary party were murdered by the Indians in 1859. It was unmarked. I had the ship carpenter make a wooden cross and I put it up at the scene of the tragedy—a simple tribute to those who died there serving. Fritz Yaghan and I stood beside it. We said nothing to each other. There was nothing to say.



THE AUTHOR IN TIERRA DEL FUEGO.

Left: The inscription left by the pioneer missionary, Allen Gardiner, on Picton Island, was still legible 80 years later when Mr. Culbertson landed there. Right: Mr. Culbertson and Fritz, one of the last of the Yaghans, stand at the cross erected on the site where members of a missionary party met their fate in 1859.



Courtesy of W. S. Culbertson.

TIERRA DEL FUEGO—THE LAND OF FIRE.

"A land desolate but marvelously beautiful. Barren rocks, smooth from the constant beating of the storms. Morasses and peaty bogs. Stunted, wind-twisted trees whose shapes testify to the force and the prevailing direction of the winds. Mountains covered with perpetual ice fields."

One day our boat put in at Mejillones on the north shore of Navarino—the last settlement of the Yaghans. A census last year gave the total number of the Indians as 73; the greater number of them live in Mejillones. Each year their deaths exceed their births. They live miserably—laws and regulations prevent them from being savages, they do not have the capacity or the inclination to take up the life of the superior race.

It is a cheap and common charge that the disappearance of the Yaghan race is due to the missionaries who made these poor children of nature put on clothes. Misguided religious zeal may have been one of the factors which, with the other influences of "civilization", destroyed this primitive people. (Darwin testified that they enjoyed in his day a sufficient share of happiness, of whatever kind it may be, to render life worth having.) But my conclusion is that the missionary efforts did change the character of the Yaghans for the better and that many a shipwrecked sailor had reason to be grateful for the spirit of kindness which was taught at the missions in Tekenika and Douglas. Furthermore, if blame for the passing of these canoe Indians is to be fixed, it belongs to those unscrupulous traders who robbed them of their hunting and sold them cheap alcoholic drinks. It is a safe conclusion that, in this as in other cases, it was the vices, not the virtues of our civilization, which did the damage.



Courtesy of the American Museum of Natural History.

HORN ISLAND,

Cape Horn, actually but a portion of the island, stands nearly 1,400 feet above the sea. Although not scenically impressive, Cape Horn awakens in the mind tales of many adventurous mariners since the days of Francis Drake, who was its discoverer.

One evening we dropped down Ponsonby Sound, passed Tekenika and Douglas and, as the sun was sinking in sombre glory behind the wind-swept hills of Hardy Peninsula, ran into Orange Bay back of False Cape Horn for the night. Only good weather on the morrow would tempt the commander of the *Micalvi* to leave the shelter of the channels for the open sea south of *Cabo de Hornos*. All day we had been having mist and rain. Hoping for good omens I was consulting a Chilean manual on meteorology. Under the heading "Easy Prognostications for the Memory" I found:

*"Despues de lluvia, neblina
Hacia buen tiempo camina"*

That is to say, after rain and mist there will be good weather. And I said "*Ojalá*." (Here's hoping.)

The next morning we were under way early. The sea was relatively calm. There was a mist which partially lifted and gave us a good view of False Cape Horn. The face of the cape had been shaped and polished by the storms which have pounded it for ages. At its base the surf broke incessantly.

We turned southeastward on a fairly smooth sea—smooth for Cape Horn. We skirted Hermit Island whose weather-worn sides rise sharply from the sea. Geese and albatross circled the ship. Clouds shifted rapidly, now hiding the islands—no opening to reveal them. We passed Cape Spencer and then owing to the mist we were for a time out of sight of land, rolling in the open South Atlantic. Finally, the islands of the Horn rose through the mist, and then running against a heavy east wind we arrived in front of the famous cape. The cape itself as scenery is not impressive. It does not need to be. Its glory is its place in the history of navigation. It is remembered when all other geography is forgotten. It lives in the tales of mariners who have braved the waters about. Like the Devil, it takes pride in its bad reputation.

It was an event of world significance when Magellan in 1520 reached the western exit of the Straits which are his enduring monument and left the Evangelists behind in his circumnavigation of the globe. He had discovered the back door to the Indies. World politics were set by the ears. Equally important was the discovery a few years later of Cape Horn by Francis Drake. It meant not only an alternative route around the American continent but a route for sailing ships, not safe, but safer than the Straits.

Even the geographic names in the Land of Fire bear silent testimony to the terrors of the seas which the little ships of early mariners faced, sometimes successfully, sometimes not—Anxious Point, the Eastern and Western Furies, Milky Way (from the breakers), Cape

Desolation, Deceit Bay. But for Cape Horn the elements have reserved their climaxes and to Cape Horn humanity has paid its heaviest tribute in fear and courage. Tales of doubling the stormy cape are always fresh, none more so than the story of Richard Henry Dana, in *Two Years Before the Mast*. Cape Horn will always remain a silent monument to the brave men who, from Drake onward, sailed its uncertain seas.

PROGRESS AMONG THE PAN AMERICAN STUDENT CLUBS

By HELOISE BRAINERD

Chief, Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union

A FEW years ago the BULLETIN published an article¹ describing the origin of the Pan American student club movement which has grown up spontaneously in different sections of the United States, as a result of the enthusiasm of young people for closer contacts with Latin American countries. So much good work has been accomplished by these groups that it seems desirable to review their activities at this time.

The oldest existing group is the Pan American Student Forum (formerly the Pan American League), with headquarters at the Allen Building, Dallas, Texas. This organization was founded in 1927 by Miss Fletcher Ryan Wickham, a teacher of Spanish in the Forest Avenue High School of Dallas, and its remarkable growth is largely due to her vision and untiring effort. Beginning with a single club having in its membership students of Spanish from the high schools of that city, the Forum now has 21 chapters, of which 13 are in Texas, 6 in Oklahoma, 1 in Atlanta, Georgia, and 1 in Cristóbal, Canal Zone. In March 1933, a national convention was held at Dallas, resulting in the change of name from League to Forum and an enlarged organization chartered under the laws of Texas. It is hoped eventually to form chapters in the Latin American countries also.

The Forum is composed of high school and college students of the Spanish language, Latin American history, American history, commercial geography, and economics; adult membership is open to teachers of these subjects and to business and professional people interested in Hispanic American affairs. Its aim is "to help promote

¹ "Pan American Student Clubs," BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, April 1932.

through proper educational projects a sincere respect for and understanding of our Hispanic neighbors". This is carried out by local meetings at which students frequently present dramatic sketches and songs in Spanish; from time to time leading members of the community, especially consuls or other members of the Latin American colony, lend their aid through lectures or music. Each year a special project is carried on, such as "Friendship Health Chests" for the Mexican rural schools, and Pan American Day—April 14—is especially observed. By way of service, the Forum furnishes to its members book lists and information as to sources for illustrative material on Hispanic subjects, and inter-American correspondence is being carried on to a limited extent. A scholarship fund for the interchange of students is one of the more distant objectives.

The Dallas Chapter has succeeded in maintaining a high degree of interest among its members by such means as prizes for essay contests or attendance at meetings, offered by various individuals and organizations; by limiting membership to honor students; and by cultivating a healthy rivalry among the schools represented. On the occasion of the first national convention, which was held at the same time as the Fourth Pan American Medical Congress, a colorful pageant was presented with great success before both conventions by the Dallas Chapter.

A valuable aid in the work of the Forum is its official organ, the *Revista Escolar Panamericana*, an interesting little school journal in English and Spanish published at Atlanta by O. S. Bandy. The Forum is now organized on a State-wide basis in six States (Arkansas, Tennessee, and Virginia, besides those already mentioned) and holds annual State conventions. The second national convention, for which several outstanding speakers have been secured, will be held at Oklahoma City March 21–23, 1935. At this time it is expected that the formation of additional chapters and progress along other lines will be reported. The national president of the organization at the present time is David Weinstein and the executive secretary, Miss Fletcher Ryan Wickham, both of Dallas.

In New York City the Pan American Club movement has had a phenomenal growth, due in part to the helpful cooperation of school authorities, the very large school population from which to recruit members, and the environment of a great port. As in the case of the Pan American Student Forum, however, a large part of the credit for its success must be ascribed to the initiative and devotion of one person, Joshua Hochstein, who founded the first Pan American Club in 1930 while teaching Spanish at the James Monroe High School. Mr. Hochstein is now executive director of the Pan American Student League of New York, with headquarters at the DeWitt Clinton High

School. In the short space of 4 years over 40 clubs have been established in New York high schools and have developed a well-informed and enthusiastic membership. To quote from an account of their work in *High Points* for March, 1934²: "These clubs have not only developed and multiplied rapidly, but also demonstrated a marked vitality. Today it is true in nearly all schools that they are the most popular clubs because the most active in a really constructive way. The energy they have released is evidenced by the richness of their programs and the ambitious scope of their projects."

Perhaps the genius of these New York clubs lies in their assumption that high school students may be a real force in promoting Pan American peace and cooperation and their appeal to students to make a serious study of inter-American problems and their backgrounds. The constitution of the League, adopted after city-wide discussion, sets forth its ideal of cultural *rapprochement* with Latin America, to be attained through activities that will give its members a genuine understanding of and appreciation for Latin American culture, and contains this significant paragraph:

The League shall endeavor to educate its members to make proper use of their rights as citizens of the United States to maintain the attitude of our country in its relations with the nations of Latin America amicable and just.

Going back to the origin of the League, it should be mentioned that the success attained by the first few Pan American clubs led Mr. Lawrence A. Wilkins, Director of Modern Languages in High Schools, to issue a circular in 1931 bringing their activities to the attention of all the city high schools. Within two months 15 more clubs were formed and a city-wide convention was held at which the Pan American Student League of New York was launched, with a staff of student officers representing all the boroughs. Since then city-wide conventions have been held twice a year, which have been described as "the only regular forum on Pan Americanism in our city". The clubs in each borough have a borough council and a faculty leader.

The clubs have taken full advantage of the opportunities offered by their city in securing speakers from the Latin American consular corps and the many Latin Americans residing in or passing through New York. The Pan American Society and other organizations having Latin American interests have also lent their support. While it would be impossible even to list the many projects which the clubs have undertaken, the following will give an idea of their varied activities: A special program of dramatics and music given annually by the League in celebration of Pan American Day, usually attended by

² "Three Years of Pan American Club Work in the High Schools." *High Points*, Board of Education of the City of New York, March 1934.

over 1,000 students from all the clubs; the Bolívar-San Martín Medal, awarded to the club member who has contributed most to the advancement of the League's program; city-wide essay contests on Pan American topics; a monthly publication issued during 1932-33; and among local club activities, in addition to discussion meetings and programs, Pan American libraries, string ensembles, exhibits (some of which have been extensive and very creditable), and visits to places of Pan American interest such as consulates and Latin American art exhibits. Club meetings are conducted in English so that all students may participate; in many cases the faculty leaders come from the history department.

The carry-over value of the training given is shown by the fact that high school graduates have been interested enough to form an alumni chapter which meets monthly for real study and discussion. A member of this chapter, David Schor, is president of the League. We predict that some Pan American leaders of the future will come from these clubs.

Another group of Pan American clubs is found in the San Francisco Bay region. These were organized in 1932 by the Northern California Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of Spanish, of which May D. Barry is president. Dr. Alfred Coester also gave valuable aid to the movement, acting on behalf of the San Francisco Chapter of the Pan American Society, Inc., which offered a Pan American medal for achievement by a member of the clubs. The medal was first awarded in 1933, by which time there were eight active clubs in San Francisco and near-by cities. At their meetings these clubs have had reports on topics connected with Latin American countries, moving pictures and stereoptican views, exhibits, Latin American music, and addresses by invited speakers, while visits to ships have also been part of their program. Representatives of the clubs take part in the annual celebration of Pan American Day held under the auspices of the Pan American Society. On this occasion the Pan American medal is awarded, the winner being selected according to a system of points devised by the club members themselves, earned by service in and for the clubs, such as attendance, acting as officers, getting up programs, and securing members.

There are also a few independent Pan American clubs or leagues scattered throughout the country. Regarding most of these the Pan American Union unfortunately has no information except their addresses, but one of them, of very recent formation, has reported most remarkable growth. This is the "Sociedad Pan-Americana de Valley Forge Military Academy", organized early in 1934 by Pedro Juan Labarthe, an enthusiastic Puerto Rican who last year became instructor in Spanish at the Valley Forge Military Academy, Wayne,

Pennsylvania. Its purposes are "To promote Pan American understanding, good will, and friendly relations among the peoples of the Latin American Republics and the United States; to foster the interest of the students . . . in the culture, history, and people of those sister Republics." The members are taking a course in Latin American history, holding a round table conference weekly, and building up a library and exhibits. Already they have received as gifts the flags of 7 Latin American Republics and many pictures, and literary and historical works. As a result of the great amount of interest aroused it was expected that during the past summer three boys would visit Mexico and others go on Caribbean cruises.

Who can measure the truly constructive work that these clubs are doing, in giving boys and girls a real and sympathetic appreciation of the other American nations? It is not too much to say that as a result of it the next generation is bound to be far more tolerant and understanding than the last one. We hope that the example of the teachers who have generously contributed their leadership to the eager young people in our schools and colleges may inspire others to devote themselves also to building up a new spirit of Pan American good will and understanding.



LATIN AMERICAN FOREIGN TRADE IN 1933

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

IN advance of publication in the General Survey of Latin American Foreign Trade, a report prepared annually by the Statistical Division of the Pan American Union, a table appears on the opposite page in which are shown, for the years 1932 and 1933, the gross values of the imports and exports of the various republics of Latin America in the national monetary units, the average annual rates of exchange for these units in United States currency, and the trade balances.

Imports, exports, and balance of trade

[Values in thousands of the monetary units, i.e., 000 omitted]

Country	1932		1933		Excess of exports		Monetary unit	Average exchange rates in United States currency	
	1932		1933		1932			1933	
	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports	Imports	Exports			
Argentina.....	836,265	1,287,782	897,149	1,120,842	451,517	223,693	Paper peso.....	\$0.2571	1 3 \$0.3203
Bolivia.....	22,352	48,904	(²)	(²)	26,552	(²)	Boliviano.....	.2122	.1984
Brazil.....	1,518,694	2,536,765	2,165,254	2,820,272	1,018,071	655,018	Milreis paper.....	.0712	3 .0796
Chile.....	213,880	290,494	181,600	368,100	76,664	186,500	Gold peso.....	.0791	3 .0768
Colombia.....	30,649	70,332	50,423	72,689	39,683	22,296	Gold peso.....	.9528	3 .8170
Costa Rica.....	23,995	37,536	29,360	38,815	13,541	9,455	Colon.....	.2270	4 .2197
Cuba.....	51,024	80,672	42,360	84,391	29,648	42,031	Peso.....	.9694	.9995
Dominican Republic.....	7,794	11,164	9,323	9,625	3,370	302	Dollar.....	1.0000	1.0000
Ecuador.....	34,710	49,298	31,862	44,282	14,588	12,420	Sucre.....	.1773	4 .1667
El Salvador.....	12,484	13,962	14,900	20,103	1,478	5,203	Colon.....	.3950	.3424
Guatemala.....	7,406	10,661	7,560	9,327	3,195	1,767	Quetzal.....	1.0000	1.0000
Haiti.....	37,306	36,106	38,334	46,650	-1,200	8,316	Gourde.....	.2000	.2000
Honduras.....	16,736	35,163	12,575	28,232	18,427	15,657	Lempira.....	.5000	.4878
Mexico.....	180,912	304,697	244,559	364,967	123,785	120,408	Silver peso.....	.3185	.2810
Nicaragua.....	3,480	4,542	3,814	4,862	1,062	1,048	Cordoba.....	1.0000	1.0000
Panama.....	8,853	2,061	9,203	2,250	-6,792	-6,953	Balboa.....	1.0000	1.0000
Paraguay.....	6,418	12,873	7,159	9,462	6,455	2,303	Gold peso.....	.5841	3 6 .7280
Peru.....	76,089	178,529	107,437	256,971	102,440	149,534	Sol.....	.2133	.1886
Uruguay.....	55,048	58,283	60,644	66,637	3,235	5,993	Gold peso.....	.4706	3 .0633
Venezuela.....	153,458	628,260	143,587	617,547	474,802	473,960	Bolivar.....	.1475	.1862

¹ Based on the average value of the gold peso from January 1 to December 10, inclusive, which was \$0.7280. For December 11 and 12 there were no quotations. The average value of the paper peso for December 13 to 31, inclusive, was \$0.3333. Paper peso, equivalent to 44 percent of gold peso, quoted in place of latter beginning December 13, 1933.

Unavailable.

² Nominal since April.

³ Official rate.

⁴ 11 months only. December figures unavailable.

⁵ Paraguayan gold peso is of same value as Argentine gold peso, the average value for which in 1933 was \$0.7280. (See note 1.)

EIGHT INDEPENDENCE DAYS

By BEATRICE NEWHALL

Assistant Editor, Bulletin of the Pan American Union

SEPTEMBER might well be called the month of independence for the American continent, for in it fall the independence days of 8 of the 21 Republics, members of the Pan American Union. The 7th is celebrated in Brazil as the anniversary of "The Cry of Ypiranga" in 1822; the 15th was the date in 1821 on which a council meeting in Guatemala City declared the independence of what are today the five Central American nations—Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Costa Rica; the 16th commemorates the *grito de Dolores* uttered in Mexico by Hidalgo, in 1810; and on the 18th, also in 1810, Chile deposed the last Spanish Captain-General and began a long struggle to achieve freedom.

The consummation of Brazilian independence was remarkable in that it was practically bloodless and involved no change of administration. When the Portuguese court fled to Rio de Janeiro in 1808, Brazil became the capital of the United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil, and Algarves, and maintained that status until the return of the King, Dom João VI, to Lisbon in 1821. His son Dom Pedro was left as Prince Regent of Brazil, which remained a sovereign unit of the kingdom. The Cortes in Lisbon highly disapproved of this course, as it wished to reduce Brazil to its former status as a colony. After attempting to accomplish this by the passage of measures which only served more and more to alienate the Brazilians, the Cortes sent an imperious communication containing new resolutions passed in July 1822 and designed further to humiliate Brazil. The message was forwarded to the Prince Regent in the State of São Paulo, where it reached him on September 7, as he was returning to the capital. The message was accompanied by letters from the Minister of the Realm and of Foreign Affairs, José Bonifacio de Andrada e Silva, and the Princess Dona Leopoldina, both urging Dom Pedro to return to Rio de Janeiro and take prompt measures to save the country from ruin. Dom Pedro retired from his retinue to read his correspondence; overcome with indignation at the contents, he made his final decision, and returned to his suite shouting, as though all Brazil could hear him, "Independence or death!" Before them he vowed, "By my blood, by my honor, by my God, I swear to bring liberty to Brazil", and as he took command, he said, "Let 'Independence or death' be

our motto, green and yellow our national colors!" That evening the enthusiastic citizens of São Paulo acclaimed the Prince as the first King of Brazil; the momentous step of separation from Portugal had been taken. The spot where Dom Pedro received the momentous message is now within the units of the city of São Paulo and the exact site, in a beautiful park, is commemorated by a monument.

The five Central American Republics, with part of what is now the Republic of Mexico, were, during colonial days, provinces of the Captaincy General of Guatemala. It was to be expected that the revolutionary ferment throughout the rest of the continent should spread there from both south and north. There had been sporadic flare-ups of rebellion from time to time but, owing to the firmness of the Captain General, José Bustamante, they had come to nothing. In 1818, however, Bustamante was succeeded by Don Carlos Urrutia, who by reason of age and pacific inclinations was glad to delegate the actual power to an Inspector General of the Army, Gabino Gainza. In 1821 word was received first that Mexico had established its independence, then that the Province of Chiapas, originally part of Guatemala, had withdrawn and joined Mexico. Patriots from all parts of Central America had gathered in Guatemala under the leadership of two men, José Cecilio del Valle, a Honduran, and Father José María Delgado of El Salvador. Gainza was easily persuaded to permit the calling of a meeting to decide what course of action was most in accord with the public interests, the more so because of the mounting excitement of the populace, culminating in a general call to arms on the 14th. A declaration of independence was drafted by del Valle, and after a spirited discussion in which the speakers were hissed or applauded by the gallery as they opposed or favored independence, it was passed, signed by all present—who represented the civil, military, and ecclesiastical authorities of the region—and proclaimed on the 15th. Internal dissension prevented a permanent union, but each of the Republics still counts the anniversary of the proclamation in Guatemala City, September 15, as its independence day.

Mexico, the seat of one of the two great colonial viceroyalties, was an early center of discontent in America. Plans for an uprising in December 1810 had been laid, a great fair to be held on that date at San Juan de los Lagos providing an auspicious occasion for successful revolt. The conspirators learned, however, that accounts of their gatherings had reached the authorities, and were in despair at their next meeting in the village of Dolores, high in the Sierra de Guajuato. The local priest, Miguel Hidalgo, had committed himself heart and soul to the cause, and because of his natural gifts of leadership the revolutionists turned to him for advice. His decision was that action should be taken immediately, and after distributing to the

populace secretly acquired weapons, he had the church bell rung early in the morning of September 16 (or, some say, late on the 15th), rallying to arms those who came by his cry "Viva Nuestra Señora de Guadalupe! Viva la independencia!" This *grito de Dolores*, as it is called, started the long struggle for independence which ended in 1821 with the emergence of Mexico as a sovereign nation of the New World. Every year at 11 o'clock at night on September 15 the President of Mexico comes out on a balcony of the Presidential Palace overlooking the main square of the capital, rings the very bell that resounded from the church at Dolores and, amid the tumultuous cheers of the assembled multitude, repeats the *grito de Dolores*.

The Republic of Chile celebrates the 18th of September as its national holiday because on that day in 1810 General García Carrasco, the Spanish Captain General, was deposed and a provisional junta of Chilean citizens came into power. As was true in other parts of South America, the junta did not immediately claim separation from Spain; it was appointed as the result of dissatisfaction with the unpopular Spanish representative, and immediately professed its loyalty to Fernando VII, then in captivity in Bayonne. Barros Arana, the famous Chilean historian, has pointed out its significance in his *Historia Jeneral de Chile*: "While protesting loyalty to the Regency Council, the people had created by their will alone a national government, and rejected the governor which the same regency had appointed for them." Spain was not going to sit supinely by, however, and watch her colonies advance without opposition along the road to independence. In the struggle that followed, the Irish-Chilean patriot, Gen. Bernardo O'Higgins, was aided by the great Argentine Liberator San Martín until at the battle of Maipú (April 5, 1818) the combined patriot armies decisively defeated Spain and ended her dominion in that southern country.

Now on the morning of the 18th the President and his cabinet attend a public service in the cathedral, a contingent of cavalry, mounted on handsome Chilean horses, lining the square. The people of modest means flock to the parks, where stands are set up for the sale of various national dishes. Sometimes the old folk dances, such as the *zamacueca*, are danced to the music of the guitar. A military parade and other events usually add to the popular enjoyment of the day.

El diez y ocho in Chile, like Easter in the United States, is the signal for donning new spring clothes—the seasons in the southern hemisphere are of course opposite to those in the north—and for the formal opening of the beach resorts, of which there are many along the beautiful coast.

BRAZIL'S FOREIGN TRADE IN 1933

By MATILDA PHILLIPS

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

ACCORDING to reports issued by the Office of Commercial Statistics of the Ministry of Finance of Brazil, imports and exports during 1933 were valued at 2,165,254 contos of paper reis and 2,820,271 contos, as compared with 1,518,694 contos and 2,536,765 contos, respectively, in 1932. Compared with the previous year, imports show an increase of 646,560 contos, or 42.6 percent, and exports of 283,506 contos, or 11.2 percent.

The balance of trade in favor of the Republic for the year 1933 was 655,017 contos; for 1932 it was 1,018,071 contos.

IMPORTS

The United States remained the principal source of Brazilian imports, supplying 21 percent of the total in 1933 as compared with 30 percent in 1932. The United Kingdom ranked second as a supplier of imports, followed by Argentina and Germany.

The share of the leading countries in the import trade during the past two years, together with the percent change in 1933, is shown in the following table:

Imports by countries of origin

Country	1932	1933	Percent change in 1933	Percent of total	
				1932	1933
	<i>Contos</i>	<i>Contos</i>			
United States.....	456,912	455,400	-0.3	30.1	21.0
United Kingdom.....	292,498	419,611	+43.5	19.3	19.4
Argentina.....	113,058	277,130	+145.1	7.4	12.8
Germany.....	136,461	263,461	+93.1	9.0	12.2
Belgium.....	59,942	113,775	+89.8	3.9	5.3
France.....	77,354	107,677	+39.2	5.1	5.0
Italy.....	61,657	86,206	+39.8	4.1	4.0
Netherlands.....	47,857	84,098	+75.7	3.2	3.9
Uruguay.....	9,100	8,311	-8.7	0.6	0.4
Other countries.....	263,855	349,585	+32.5	17.3	16.0
Total.....	1,518,694	2,165,254	+42.6	100.0	100.0

NOTE.—The average value of the conto in United States currency was: 1932, \$71.22; 1933, \$79.63 (nominal since April).

The principal commodities imported into Brazil during the last two years were as follows:

Imports by principal commodities

Commodity	Quantity		Value	
	1932	1933	1932	1933
Livestock.....number..	3,572	5,942	<i>Contos</i> 2,132	<i>Contos</i> 3,779
Raw materials used in the arts and industries:				
Patent fuel, coal and coke.....tons..	1,189,466	1,292,020	78,877	90,234
Cement.....do.....	160,534	113,870	18,164	12,668
Iron and steel.....do.....	29,830	59,927	18,470	35,528
Jute.....do.....	19,199	24,415	27,945	32,922
Wool.....do.....	708	1,777	12,860	34,540
Wood pulp.....do.....	43,742	66,582	21,661	31,161
Hides and skins.....do.....	263	420	9,319	15,250
Silk.....do.....	530	1,075	36,554	53,409
Miscellaneous.....do.....	100,817	130,776	155,099	226,342
Total.....			378,949	532,054
Manufactures:				
Cotton piece goods.....tons..	390	794	9,397	24,256
Other manufactures of cotton.....do.....	181	397	4,926	10,656
Automobiles.....number.....	2,395	772	19,219	59,566
Other vehicles.....tons..	2,578	2,530	10,330	15,692
Rubber.....do.....	2,249	5,363	18,868	43,302
Copper and alloys.....do.....	1,336	1,386	7,299	12,398
Iron and steel.....do.....	97,501	181,023	94,191	168,098
Gasoline.....do.....	143,709	235,872	53,922	75,345
Kerosene.....do.....	47,070	81,176	25,047	41,877
Wool.....do.....	165	321	5,637	11,414
Linen.....do.....	623	1,098	14,031	28,234
Earthenware, porcelain, glass, and crystal ware.....tons..	7,245	11,912	15,631	29,541
Machinery, apparatus, utensils, and tools.....do.....	20,628	32,016	195,244	286,814
Fuel oil.....do.....	402,829	442,225	47,988	51,445
Paper and manufactures.....do.....	33,685	43,842	40,618	53,682
Chemicals, drugs, and pharmaceutical products.....tons..	40,676	54,688	71,435	116,213
Miscellaneous.....do.....	35,677	44,664	112,969	149,278
Total.....			746,752	1,177,811
Alimentary substances:				
Olive oil.....tons..	2,259	4,851	20,196	19,851
Codfish.....do.....	26,340	26,162	42,968	43,646
Potatoes.....do.....	5,972	11,325	1,875	4,730
Beverages.....do.....	6,124	8,625	17,107	25,682
Wheat flour.....do.....	5,113	48,605	3,063	25,589
Fruits and nuts.....do.....	11,401	16,597	24,328	40,498
Salt, rock and white.....do.....	24,050	10,438	2,064	938
Wheat.....do.....	772,378	850,056	253,419	256,219
Fodder.....do.....	87	93	39	67
Miscellaneous.....do.....	10,840	14,196	25,802	34,390
Total.....			390,861	451,610
Grand total.....			1,518,694	2,165,254

EXPORTS

The United States continued to be Brazil's best customer in 1933, taking 46.4 percent of the country's exports, which was practically the same proportion as in 1932.

The following table shows the share of this trade secured by each of the principal countries for the last two years and the percent change in 1933:

Exports by countries of destination

Country	1932	1933	Percent change in 1933	Percent of total	
				1932	1933
	<i>Contos</i>	<i>Contos</i>			
United States.....	1, 173, 129	1, 309, 569	+11. 6	46. 2	46. 4
France.....	224, 878	256, 634	+14. 1	8. 9	9. 1
Germany.....	223, 618	228, 920	+2. 4	8. 8	8. 1
United Kingdom.....	175, 826	212, 894	+21. 1	7. 0	7. 5
Argentina.....	149, 894	151, 066	+ . 8	5. 9	5. 4
Netherlands.....	102, 497	130, 090	+27. 5	4. 0	4. 6
Italy.....	94, 981	91, 629	-3. 5	3. 7	3. 2
Uruguay.....	91, 258	89, 218	-2. 2	3. 6	3. 2
Belgium.....	65, 489	81, 430	+24. 3	2. 6	2. 9
Other countries.....	235, 195	268, 221	+14. 0	9. 3	9. 6
Total.....	2, 536, 765	2, 820, 271	+11. 2	100. 0	100. 0

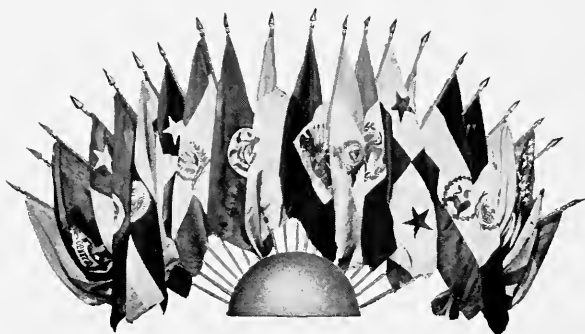
Coffee, the chief export of Brazil, accounted for 72.7 per cent of the total exports, amounting to 15,459,000 bags, valued at 2,050,084 contos. Cacao, hides, yerba maté, oranges, frozen and chilled meats, oil-producing seeds, and skins were the next most important exports in the order named.

A comparative statement of the principal exports for the last two years is given below:

Exports by principal commodities

	Quantity		Value	
	1932	1933	1932	1933
Animals and animal products:			<i>Contos</i>	<i>Contos</i>
Lard..... tons	20	8, 755	51	13, 202
Preserved meats..... do	3, 248	6, 010	9, 259	17, 112
Frozen and chilled meats..... do	45, 985	44, 319	61, 046	48, 520
Hides..... do	33, 355	43, 045	50, 676	67, 525
Wool..... do	1, 772	2, 495	6, 277	6, 507
Skins..... do	4, 812	5, 032	44, 442	44, 975
Tallow..... do	109	17	138	17
Jerked beef..... do	286	167	618	266
Miscellaneous..... do	27, 466	19, 382	23, 164	17, 966
Total.....			195, 671	216, 090
Minerals and mineral products:				
Manganese..... tons	20, 885	24, 893	1, 309	1, 135
Precious stones..... do			1, 016	105
Miscellaneous..... tons	10, 209	25, 678	39, 727	43, 290
Total.....			42, 052	44, 530
Vegetables and vegetable products:				
Cotton, raw..... tons	515	11, 693	1, 767	32, 782
Rice..... do	27, 937	23, 391	18, 137	18, 133
Sugar..... do	40, 459	25, 470	19, 174	12, 552
Rubber..... do	6, 224	9, 453	10, 626	21, 689
Cacao..... do	97, 513	98, 687	113, 851	106, 357
Coffee..... 1,000 bags	11, 935	15, 459	1, 823, 948	2, 050, 084
Carnauba wax..... tons	6, 380	6, 875	19, 885	21, 570
Bran of all kinds..... do	82, 215	89, 193	16, 550	14, 269
Manioc meal..... do	4, 703	5, 482	2, 207	2, 181
Oranges..... boxes	1, 930, 138	2, 554, 258	40, 179	54, 894
Other fruits and nuts..... tons	110, 677	137, 188	29, 558	37, 423
Oil-producing seeds..... do	43, 976	74, 581	31, 809	48, 030
Tobacco..... do	27, 006	20, 094	39, 491	29, 771
Yerba maté..... do	81, 400	59, 222	86, 988	63, 420
Timber..... do	101, 193	101, 967	21, 673	22, 710
Oilseed cake..... do	41, 173	34, 911	10, 726	9, 595
Miscellaneous..... do	24, 741	13, 794	12, 470	14, 191
Total.....			2, 290, 042	2, 559, 651
Grand total.....			2, 536, 765	2, 820, 271

¹ One bag equals 60 kilos or 132 pounds.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

At the special session held by the Governing Board Monday, June 25, in honor of His Excellency Señor Don Alfonso López, President-Elect of the Republic of Colombia, he said during the course of his remarks: "It would be my greatest satisfaction if this tribute for which I am so greatly indebted to the Governing Board should give rise to a new call to the belligerents of the Chaco, to bring to an end the international tragedy which burdens the conscience of the continent"; and at the session held June 27 the Minister Resident of the Republic of Costa Rica proposed that the Governing Board should adopt the idea expressed by Señor López and should take steps to put it into effect. The proposal of the Minister of Costa Rica having been approved, a committee, consisting of the Ambassador of Mexico, the Minister of Panama, and the sponsor of the resolution, was appointed to report on this proposal and to prepare a resolution. Therefore at the special meeting on Monday, July 30, taking into account that whatever may be the reasons on which the Republics of Bolivia and Paraguay base the rights which they adduce in the conflict which has brought them to the state of war existing for more than two years with great loss of life on the part of both nations and with tremendous material sacrifices, no solution of international conflicts is satisfactory and permanent, except when it is founded on pacific processes; that it is an obligation arising out of continental solidarity to give moral support to the various endeavors initiated up to the present by the sister nations of this continent and by international entities and institutions for the purpose of ending this conflict and causing the belligerents to submit it for settlement to the process of conciliation or arbitration; that in the interest of these two Republics, in that of all

the countries, members of the Pan American Union, and in that of humanity as a whole, it is urgent to proceed without delay in a vigorous manner to induce them to cease hostilities and to compose their differences by the above-mentioned pacific measures; the Governing Board resolved that:

As soon as possible the above-mentioned facts and considerations be communicated to the neutral Governments, members of the Pan American Union, in order that, if they deem it fitting, they shall jointly address a new call to the belligerents of the Chaco so that this international tragedy may cease and they may submit their differences to the process of conciliation or arbitration;

A vote of applause be given to His Excellency Dr. Alfonso López, President-Elect of Colombia, for his humanitarian initiative on behalf of the peace of the continent.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Among the new books received during the past month are the following:

Legislación obrera [y] previsión social, provincia de Córdoba (leyes, decretos y resoluciones en vigencia); anotados y concordados por el Dr. Luis A. Despontín, Director del Dpto. prov. del trabajo. [Córdoba, A. Biffignandi] 1934. 615 p. 20½ cm. [A compilation which includes views on labor and social legislation "from the generous expressions of social betterment of the Versailles Treaty and of the Seventh Pan American Conference of Montevideo, to the latest national and provincial regulations."]

La comunidad espiritual [por] Honorio J. Senet. La Plata, Taller de impresiones oficiales, 1932. 142 p. 18½ cm. [Professor Senet, the author of educational and social works, in this volume collects various essays on the cultural and educational value of the radio.]

El Banco de la provincia de Buenos Aires y el impuesto a la renta; estudio de algunas cuestiones de derecho federal y de derecho financiero que se promueven con motivo de la aplicación de las leyes nacionales nos. 11682, 11683, y 11757. Escrito presentado a la Dirección general de los impuestos a los réditos. Por Teodoro Becu. . . . Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos argentinos de L. J. Rosso, 1934. 83 p. 22 cm. [An interesting study of the Bank of the Province of Buenos Aires and the tax legislation in Argentina affecting it.]

Historia de la música argentina; origen y características, por el Profesor Arturo C. Schianca. Buenos Aires [Establecimiento gráfico argentino, 1933?] 202 p. 22 cm. [Professor Schianca, a well-known Argentine musician, presents in this work a valuable history of Argentine music with the origin and execution of various national dances and songs, the music for many representative pieces, and the lyrics of a number of songs.]

La pintura y la escultura en Argentina, (1753-1894) [por] Eduardo Schiafino. Buenos Aires, Edición del autor, 1933. 418 p. illus. 31 cm. [An introductory chapter on pre-Columbian and colonial art in Latin America precedes this valuable and complete study of Argentine art, to which are added many reproductions in black and white of famous paintings, drawings, and pieces of sculpture.]

Principios de derecho público [por] Salvador M. Dana Montaña. . . . Santa Fe, Editores "La Unión", Casa Morales González, Salcedo & cía [1933] Volumen 1: 257 p. 28½ cm. Contents: Elementos de derecho público general. I. El derecho público. II. División del derecho público. III. El derecho constitucional. IV.

Las fuentes del derecho constitucional. V. El estado. VI. Los fines del estado. VII. La personalidad del estado. VIII. Tipos de estado. IX. Las formas de estado. Apéndice: El derecho público provincial. [Professor Dana Montaña of the Universidad Nacional del Litoral in Santa Fe, Argentina, adds bibliographical footnotes and bibliographies at the end of each chapter, which help to make this work an excellent text-book as well as a valuable study of public law.]

A través de una correspondencia: Don Juan María Gutiérrez, por Luis Barros Borgoño. Santiago, Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1934. 230 p. 25 cm. (Archivo Barros Arana). [These letters of Dr. Gutiérrez, which cover the stirring times of Chilean history from 1851 to 1874, have been taken from the Barros Arana archives. A biography of the exiled Chilean patriot by Luis Barros Borgoño precedes the correspondence.]

Conferencia de Cámaras de comercio latino-americanas, Valparaíso, 11-26 de febrero de 1934. Antecedentes, actas y resoluciones. Valparaíso, Sociedad imprenta y litografía Universo, 1934. 146 p. plates, ports. 23 cm. [The complete proceedings of this recent conference.]

Compilación de los estudios geológicos oficiales en Colombia, 1917 a 1933. . . . [Publicación del] Ministerio de industrias, Biblioteca del Departamento de minas y petróleo. Bogotá, Imprenta nacional, 1933. Tomo 1: 475 p. illus., port., diags. (part col., part fold.) 24 cm. Contents: Informes relativos a los trabajos verificados por la Comisión Científica Nacional, bajo la dirección del profesor Dr. Roberto Scheibe. [This is the first of five volumes which will fully cover the geological investigations undertaken by the government in the past sixteen years.]

El Tratado Lozano-Salomón [por] Fabio Lozano Torrijos. México, Editorial "Cultura", 1934. 616 pp. [The author, until recently Minister of Colombia in the United States and formerly Minister in Peru, says in the preface: "I write these pages to explain and defend, from its inception, the Treaty of Boundaries and Free Land and Fluvial Transit which I signed in Lima, March 24, 1922, with the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Peru, Dr. Alberto Salomón. . . . I devoted to the arrangement of boundaries between the two countries more than 10 years of incessant labor; I gave to this labor throughout this long period all my time, all my energies and my abilities; I am thoroughly conversant with the incidents bearing on this subject and have abundant documentation in the matter. . . ."]

El Mayor General Pedro E. Betancourt y Dávalos en la lucha por la independencia de Cuba; discurso leído por el académico de número, Dr. Juan Miguel Dihigo, en la sesión solemne celebrada el 28 de junio de 1934. . . . La Habana, Imprenta "El siglo xx", A. Muñiz y hno., 1934. 70 p. front. (port.), plates (ports.) 28 cm. (Publicación de la Academia de la Historia de Cuba.) [A hero of the Cuban independence has a worthy biographer in Dr. Dihigo.]

Derecho internacional público, por Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante y Sirvén. . . . Habana, Carasa y cía., 1934. Tomo 2: 534 p. 23½ cm. [Volume 2 covers administrative law. The whole field of international public law forms the basis for this study by the famous Cuban internationalist and jurist.]

José Ingenieros y su obra literaria [por] Ricardo Riaño Jauma. Prólogo del Dr. Juan J. Remos. . . . Habana, Arellano y cía., 1933. 159 p. 20½ cm. [Ingenieros, who died when he was barely 48 years old, is linked with Rodó by Dr. Remos as one of the two men influential in molding twentieth-century Spanish American youth. Ricardo Riaño Jauma shows how the philosopher-poet-critic of Argentina has influenced all Spanish America through his writings.]

La heredad (novela) [por] Marcos Carias Reyes. Tegucigalpa, Talleres tipográficos nacionales [1931?] 196 p. 26 cm. [A recent Honduran novel.]

Vida rural; los campesinos de México, por Ernesto Martínez de Alva. México, Talleres gráficos de la Nación, 1933. 344 p. illus. 23 cm. [This book, published for free distribution by the Department of Public Education, contains much material from *El Maestro Rural*, a periodical published by the Department twice a month for rural school teachers. The varied subject matter includes poetry and instructive articles on agriculture, civics, construction, economics, the ejido, stockraising, geography, hygiene, national history, forestry, and sociology.]

The Mexican Government's six year plan, 1934 to 1940. Complete textual translation of the revised Plan and General Lázaro Cárdenas' nomination address, explaining how he will abide by the Plan during his administration. By Trens Agency. Mexico City [Talleres gráficos de la penitenciaría, 1934] 84 p. 22½ cm. [In the speech accepting his nomination for the Presidency of the Republic, General Cárdenas pledged his support of the program adopted by the National Revolutionary Party.]

Ensayos, documentos y discursos, por el Doctor Eusebio A. Morales. . . . Panamá, Editorial "La moderna" de Quijano y Hernández [pref. 1928] 2 v. 20 cm. (Biblioteca de autores nacionales.) [This collection gives an idea of the variety and extent of the interests of Dr. Morales, an eminent Panamanian patriot, publicist, diplomat, and economist.]

Ravelings from a Panama tapestry, by Sue Core. Illustrations by Esther Alethea Richards. Dobbs Ferry, New York, North Westchester publishers, inc. [c. 1933] 161 p. illus. 20 cm. [Folk tales of early Panama form the basis for these interesting stories. The author has appended historical data to each tale.]

Diccionario histórico biográfico del Perú, formado y redactado por Manuel de Mendiburu. Segunda edición con adiciones y notas bibliográficas publicada por Evaristo San Cristóval. . . . Lima, Librería e imprenta Gil, s.a., 1934. Tomo viii: Mon-Pez. 501 p. 23 cm. [Volume 8 of the revised edition of a valuable biographical dictionary originally published in Lima from 1874-1900.]

Cuzco: the historical and monumental city of Peru. Travelers' guide; contains complete details of the historical Incaic and colonial ruins of Cuzco and surroundings. [By José Gabriel Cosío] [Lima, Editorial Incazteca, 1924?] 75 p. plates (part fold.) 17½ cm. [A helpful guide-book to the Incan and colonial ruins.]

Cuzco, archaeological capital of South America, 1534-1934. [By] Luis E. Valcárcel. Issued by the Banco Italiano, Lima. [Lima, Imprenta Torres Aguirre, 1934] [40] p. illus., maps. 25 cm. [Another booklet on the historic city published on the occasion of its quadricentennial. Excellent descriptions by the Director of the National Museum of Lima, accompanied by good illustrations and maps, make this a helpful handbook for the tourist.]

Studies in the administration of the Indians in New Spain . . . by Lesley Byrd Simpson. Berkeley, California, University of California press, 1934. 129 p. illus., facsim., maps (1 fold.) 23½ cm. (Ibero-Americana: 7) Contents: I. The laws of Burgos of 1512. II. The civil congregation. [This, the first of a series of studies on the administration of the Indians in New Spain, contains documentary material, in Spanish, and reports on Mexican towns during the first century of the Spanish occupation of Mexico, translated into English.]

Bolívar, por el Dr. J. H. van Peurseem. Segunda edición revisada. Traducción de W. van Bellen. El Haya, Editada por Philatelie en Geschiedenis [1934?] 108 p. col. front. (port.), illus., plates, ports., fold. map. 23½ cm. (Historia y filatelia.) [The illustrations include facsimiles of postage stamps issued to commemorate the revolutionary era in the Americas and those showing portraits of and monuments to the Liberator.]

The following magazines are new or have been received in the Library for the first time:

Agricultura Cuyana; revista agrícola-industrial. Mendoza, 1934. Año 1, N°. 3, 15 de junio de 1934. 32 p. illus. 28½x19½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Abelardo P. Piovano. Address: San Martín 2271, Mendoza, Argentina.

Crítica de la jurisprudencia; boletín mensual del Colegio de abogados de Rosario. Rosario, 1934. Año 1, N°. 1, junio 1934. 38 p. 26½x18 cm. Editor: Dr. Horacio R. Thedy. Address: Colegio de abogados, Palacio de justicia, Rosario, Argentina.

Vida escolar; revista argentina de educación. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año 1, N°. 5 y 6, marzo-abril de 1934. 42 p. illus. 30x23½ cm. Monthly. Editor: A. Capossello. Address: Avenida de Mayo 840, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

La Gaceta de Bolivia; semanario gráfico. La Paz, 1934. Año 1, N°. 1, 14 de junio, 1934. [26] p. illus., ports. 33x26 cm. Editor: Carlos Medinaceli. Address: Ingavi 567, La Paz, Bolivia.

El Estudiante. La Habana, 1934. Año 1, N°. 1, 24 de mayo de 1934. [6] p. 38x28 cm. Weekly. Editor: Alberto Pavoni. Address: Sol 57, Habana, Cuba.

Proteo; revista mensual de cultura; órgano de los cursos segundo B, Tercero A i Tercero B del Instituto "Juan Montalvo". Quito, 1934. Año 1, N°. 2, abril i mayo de 1934. 64 p. illus. (ports.) 28½x19cm. Editor: Justino Cornejo. Address: Apartado 357, Quito, Ecuador.

Cumbres; revista quincenal; cultura—arte—modernismo—ilustración. Quito, 1934. Año 1, N°. 1, julio de 1934. 64 p. illus. (ports.) 22x16 cm. Editor: Luis Octavio Ramírez C. Address: Cuenca N°. 28, Quito, Ecuador.

Rutas. Toluca, 1934. Tomo 1, N°. 1, 30 de abril de 1934. [50] p. illus. (ports.) 29x19½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Félix Patiño. Address: Degollado N°. 69, Toluca, México.

Agricultura; órgano oficial de la Secretaría de agricultura y fomento. México, 1934. Tomo 1, N°. 2, abril y mayo de 1934. [78] p. illus. 28x20 cm. Monthly. Editor: Arturo M. Escandón. Address: Tacuba N°. 7, México, D.F., México.

Trabajo y previsión social; órgano del Instituto de jubilaciones del Uruguay. Montevideo, 1934. Año 1, N°. 3, mayo de 1934. 40 p. illus. 28½x20 cm. Monthly. Editor: J. A. Gutiérrez. Address: Piedras 406, Montevideo, Uruguay.



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

CUBAN CURRENCY LEGISLATION

Cuban currency legislation issued last May reduces the gold content of the peso, provides for the purchase of gold by the Government, and prohibits its exportation. Henceforth the gold peso will weigh 0.9873 gram and contain 0.8886 gram of fine gold. The old Cuban gold coins and gold coins of the United States will no longer be legal tender. They will be considered as bullion and purchased by the Government by weight at the rate of 35 silver pesos per troy ounce. The Secretary of the Treasury is also authorized to purchase gold in any other form at the same rate. The new Cuban gold coins and silver pesos will be unlimited legal tender; the subsidiary silver coins will be full legal tender in payments not exceeding 10 pesos and up to 8 percent of any obligation involving more than that amount. Nickel coins are legal tender up to 1 peso. At first the law provided that "all obligations payable in money, whether or not contracted prior to the effective date of this law (May 23, 1934), may be paid in any kind of legal tender currency", within the limitations set above. This retroactive feature was, however, eliminated by a decree issued five days later. The devalued peso may be used for payments contracted subsequently to the date of the decree but those contracted prior thereto must be paid in the currency agreed upon at the time the contract was made.

The exportation of gold in any form except articles of personal use is subject to a fine of not more than 5,000 pesos.

The transfer abroad of funds was also restricted by a decree issued on June 2, 1934; however, a decree-law published and effective July 14, 1934, completely annulled its provisions.

NEW CUBAN CURRENCY

Ten million silver pesos are now being minted at Philadelphia for the Cuban Government. This money is to be used to meet overdue civilian salaries and other Government expenses, carry out agricultural reforms, and start a program of public works to relieve unemployment. The bullion, 7,500,000 ounces purchased at a total cost of \$3,588,568.83, was secured through a credit opened in favor of the Cuban Government by the Second Export-Import Bank of Washington, D.C., upon delivery of interest-bearing negotiable promissory notes. The bank, authorized by an Executive order

issued on March 9, 1934, was organized to assist in improving trade conditions between Cuba and the United States in accordance with President Roosevelt's general recovery program, and it is believed that the assistance thus rendered for the economic recovery of Cuba will expedite the early resumption of normal trade relations between the two countries.



Courtesy of the Embassy of Cuba, Washington, D.C.

THE NEW CUBAN PESO.

From this new die 8,000,000 silver pesos are being coined at Philadelphia.

The silver currency is to serve as the reserve for ten million pesos' worth of silver certificates to be issued in denominations of one, five, ten, twenty, and fifty pesos; these are being printed in the United States Bureau of Engraving and Printing in Washington. Two million silver pesos have already been coined from the old die of the 1914 issue and delivered to the Cuban Government. A new die, however, is to be used for the remainder.

GOVERNMENT SUPERVISION OF EXPORTS IN CHILE

The Government of Chile has for some time been seeking to foster the sale of agricultural products abroad, in order to diversify its exports, which had hitherto consisted largely of nitrate and copper. It was realized from the outset that the demand for Chilean products would constantly increase if the importers were assured that the quality of the articles was not only good but standardized. The President of Chile was therefore authorized by law no. 4472 of November 24, 1928, to set standards to which exports from the Republic should conform; regulations for putting such standards into effect were issued in decree no. 769 of April 23, 1929, published in the *Diario Oficial* of July 23 of the same year. These regulations have recently been modified by decree no. 1124, signed on October 16, 1933, and published in the *Diario Oficial* of December 28, on which date

they went into effect. The new decree establishes the Service for the Commercial Control of Exports, to regulate, classify, and control the shipment abroad of agricultural products and byproducts by setting standards to which all exports must conform, grading them as to quality, and specifying how they shall be packed and marked.

The service functions at the customhouses, using the customs personnel; at present it has been established in the ports of Coquimbo, Los Andes, Valparaíso, San Antonio, Talcahuano, Lebu, Valdivia, and Puerto Montt, and will eventually be extended to all ports in the country.

All exports must be examined by the inspectors, who will then issue a certificate which should be demanded by the consignee with every shipment. Special regulations for each product or class of product are being prepared, and the purchaser abroad will find therein all information as to grades, labeling, packing, etc. Such regulations have been issued so far for four products, for cereals, dried legumes—beans, lentils, peas, and chickpeas—canned fruits and vegetables, and lumber. The first three are revisions of earlier specifications, but the lumber code appears to be new.

The regulations carry one new requirement: The products subject to control must bear the exporter's special brand. Such marks must first be entered in the Register of Brands to be opened in the Department of Commerce of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, which will supply the custom houses with lists of those complying with the rule.

As an example of the efforts being made to give purchasers of Chilean products confidence that they will receive the same quality of goods with every order, the export regulations for cereals are here summarized. The cereals included in the regulations are wheat, oats, barley, both malt and fodder, and maize.

First, the terms used are defined: Cereals, species, variety, quality, clean, sifted, foreign matter, defects, injuries, sound, uniform, choice, mixed, undeveloped, broken, moldy, weevily, percentage, specific weight, old, F.A.Q. (fair average quality), and humidity. There are three qualities for each cereal, superior (grade 1), ordinary or F.A.Q. (grade 2), and inferior (grade 3); in the case of wheat, it is further specified that all wheat not conforming to the lowest grade will be considered chaff. In judging the quality, the year, size, condition, percentage of damaged grain, and appearance must be taken into consideration. The general requirements state that the humidity content cannot be more than 15 percent; cereals must be packed in bags either new or, if used, clean and without tears or patches; the gross weight per bag for wheat must be 80 kilograms (kilogram equals 2.2 pounds), oats, 60–80, barley, 70–80, and corn, 70–80; all bags in a single shipment being of uniform weight; and the bags must carry, plainly visible, the following information: The kind of cereal, the

quality, net weight, name or trade mark of the exporter registered in the Department of Commerce of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and the words "Chile" or "Producto Chileno." The regulations are concluded with instructions for inspection and the issuing of the certificate.

The central section of Chile contains rich farming regions; the fine quality of the fruits and vegetables grown there has been remarked by all visitors to the Republic. Thanks to modern methods of packing and refrigeration, Chilean fruits, especially Chilean peaches and melons, can now be exported to distant lands; they have won an enviable reputation in the markets of the United States. The canning industry is comparatively recent, and by taking prompt measures to regulate it, the Government has made certain not only that the sanitary and social conditions of the factories will be above reproach, but also that the demand for Chilean canned goods will be stimulated abroad, particularly in South America.



STATUE OF CHRIST FOR EL MORRO, ARICA

An opportunity for the sculptors of all nations is given by the intention of Chile to erect on the Morro of Arica, part of the territory long in dispute between that country and Peru, a monumental statue of Christ. One of the articles of the Treaty of Settlement signed between the two nations in Lima on June 3, 1929, provided that the Government of Chile should erect "an upright statue of the Saviour of the World in the attitude of preaching His doctrine of peace and love." The pact signed in Lima on March 17, 1934, specified that the cornerstone shall be laid on February 12, 1935, and the statue unveiled on May 2 of the same year. On May 29, 1934, therefore, a commission composed of the Chilean Minister of Foreign Affairs and 58 members was appointed to carry out this provision of the treaties.

An unofficial memorandum has been issued for the information of those interested in bidding on the monument. A translation of the notice is as follows:

The Government of Chile, by virtue of international accords with Peru, and in order to symbolize the peaceful and cordial intentions of both nations, will raise on the Morro of Arica a monument for which the following specifications have been drawn up:

[The Morro] shall be crowned with the statue of Christ the Redeemer, which best exemplifies the idea contained in the great precept: "Love one another as I have loved you."



EL MORRO, ARICA, CHILE.

The statue must be visible three miles from the coast. Therefore, it must be more than 12 meters (approximately 40 feet) high from head to foot; it must be in a standing position, facing the sea, possibly with the arms extended; it will thus point with one hand toward Peru and with the other toward Chile.

In choosing the material—iron or bronze—the salt air of the region, the existence of great numbers of sea birds, and the lack of rainfall must be taken into consideration. All of these facts seem to indicate the suitability of painted iron.

For the purpose of maintenance, there must be access to all inner and outer surfaces, including the extremities.

It must be taken into consideration that the statue will be erected on top of the Morro, 130 meters (about 420 feet) above sea level, on a cement pedestal faced with stone, bearing as its only inscription the words of Christ, “*Amaos los unos a los otros, como yo os he amado*” (Love one another, as I have loved you).

The pedestal must be as high as the statue, which will be strongly fastened to its foundation. It is not necessary for the estimate to include the pedestal and the cost of its erection.

The chief information required is: (a) a sketch of the monument; (b) an exact drawing of the statue and of its sections, from the artistic point of view as well as from that of the constructor; (c) the material selected; (d) the weight and dimensions of each piece; (e) instructions for illumination and maintenance, etc.; (f) general and specific information as to transportation, erection, etc. (there is a railway to the summit of the Morro); (g) delivery dates; and (h) prices.

All communications should be directed to Monseñor Rafael Edwards, Comisión Pro-Monumento, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, Santiago, Chile.

There are at least three monumental religious statues on South American heights. Undoubtedly the most widely known is the Christ of the Andes, on the frontier between Chile and Argentina, 14,450 feet

above sea level. Erected as a pledge of international peace, it was unveiled on March 13, 1904.

Surmounting the Cerro San Cristóbal, a hill in the heart of Santiago, Chile, stands a statue of the Virgin, a copy of the monument in the Piazza di Spagna, in Rome.

The third is a statue of Christ the Redeemer which overlooks the bay of Rio de Janeiro from the summit of Corcovado. Approximately 100 feet high, it is a striking feature of the magnificent view which inspires the traveler as he approaches the harbor.

TWO SCHOOLS FOR THE ANDEAN INDIAN

On the shores of Lake Titicaca are two interesting schools for Indians, one in Peru, the other in Bolivia. The former is the older, having been created by a decree dated November 11, 1925, which provided that in the Province of Puno an industrial school farm should be established to educate indigenous boys. In December 1927 the task of organizing and building the school was entrusted to the Salesian Congregation, which was to manage it for six years. Plans were drawn and work begun on the site chosen, on Lake Titicaca near Puno, and a year and a half later, June 4, 1929, the school was officially opened with 100 pupils.

There are now 200 students, according to the latest report received at the Pan American Union, although when the building is completed, it will provide for 500. Its construction was largely the work of the students themselves. It is simple in style but modern in equipment; on the ground floor are workshops, dining rooms, kitchen, administration offices, chapel, and assembly hall; on the second are classrooms, dormitories, infirmary, and sleeping quarters for the staff; and on the third are more dormitories and some storerooms for crops.

The primary purpose of the farm is to influence the indigenous race by educating young men so that they may become intelligent members of the community. Therefore the boys, who enter between the ages of 12 and 15, spend the entire five years of the course at the school. The course of study is divided into four sections, academic, agricultural, household, and vocational. The students receive free of charge their board and lodging, clothing, textbooks, and all necessary tools.

The academic course consists of the first three years of primary instruction as a minimum. The majority of the students know no Spanish when they enter.

Agriculture being the traditional occupation of the Indians, special attention is given to all aspects of farming, especially stock raising. All students take part in the farm tasks. The school has almost

7,000 acres 13,000 feet above sea level, much of it suitable for stock raising. About 500 acres can, by proper drainage, fertilization, and other treatment, be made to grow crops. In a little more than two years nearly half that area, hitherto fallow, had been sown to forage crops, cereals, and vegetables, and a nursery begun. The experiments with different species of cereals have been encouraging, in spite of the fact that there is no water for irrigation in the dry season. A tract of more than 2,000 osiers is being planted, and eucalyptus trees, willows, poplars, lindens, cedars, and cypresses have also been set out. The livestock includes cattle, goats, pigs, and wool-bearing animals. As soon as an adequate store of forage had been grown, selective breeding among the animals belonging to the farm was begun. A model stable has been built, and it was hoped that by the end of the year other farm buildings, such as a dairy, poultry yards, etc., might be completed. The meat of the cattle raised is made into jerked beef and the hides used by those studying leather trades. The wool grown is washed, spun, and woven on the grounds.

Not only is the farm work done by the boys, but all the household tasks are also performed by them. These include the washing and mending of their clothes, the cleaning of the building, and the preparation of food.

Among the supplementary trades which the student may learn are carpentry, cabinetmaking, painting, forging, tailoring, shoemaking, tanning, and baking.

The object of the education received by the Indian at the School Farm at Puno is not, then, to wean him away from his people, but to raise the level of living conditions of his whole race. That the institution has not been unsuccessful in this direction is proved by the fact that boys have traveled 10 and 12 days on foot to seek admittance. Work is steadily going forward so that the farm may be equipped to provide as soon as possible for the entire 500 students for whom it was created.

The Bolivian school, across Lake Titicaca and inland, was founded more recently. From a pamphlet entitled *Message of the Indigenous School of Warisata on Pan American Day* [1934] (*Mensaje de la escuela indigenal de Warisata en el Día de las Américas*) the following information has been taken.

Two years and a half ago the present director was empowered by the Minister of Instruction to start a school for indigenes at any site he might choose; he was also given a free hand as to the course of study, the organization, and all other matters connected with the institution.

The site selected was at Warisata, about five miles from Achacache, the capital of the Province of Omasuyos, and 62 from La Paz. More propitious places were passed by in favor of this spot less than ten

miles from the snows of Mount Illampu, where life is difficult but where the Indian has retired to make his home. The director had to live the native life while he was making his plans for the school and winning their confidence, for earlier hopes of education among them had come to nothing. At first only two Indians were willing to help him in the construction of the school building, but that number had increased to 100 when the first section was completed. The building, in its present state, has been assessed at 150,000 bolivianos, not more than 20,000 of which were from the Government. The remainder is the contribution of the Indians themselves, not in cash—for they are very poor—but in labor, the gift of men, women, and children. Such a course of action was natural, for they were following their ancestral custom of cooperation.

The school and its government are under the jurisdiction of the Indians. The council of the *amautas* or sages, a form of local self-government dating from pre-Columbian times, decides on the aims of the school and the work to be undertaken by it, and watches over its career in every way.

The school at Warisata believes that the problem of the Indian is above all an economic one. Therefore agriculture, as expressed in the experiment fields, plays an important part in the school life. But it also believes that part of its mission is to train the conscience and judgment.

The Andean Indian has an almost superstitious respect for schools. Today, when one from a distant region passes by Warisata, he turns to look at the white building with its wide windows, and respectfully removes his hat. He feels that it is the work neither of the State nor of strangers; it has been shaped by the hands of the Indians themselves.

NEW HISTORY SOCIETY AWARDS

A competition open to students of the universities and professional schools of South and Central America, Mexico, the West Indies, and adjacent islands, was sponsored last year by the New History Society of New York. Three main prizes and six special ones were offered for essays received before February 15, 1934, on the subject "How can the youth of the universities and the professional schools contribute to the reconstruction of the human commonwealth?"

Papers were received from students of 17 of the 20 eligible countries members of the Pan American Union, Bermuda, and Puerto Rico. The judges were Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro, Minister of Panama to the United States; Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister of Guatemala to the United States; Dr. Esther J. Crooks, Goucher College, Baltimore; Mr. Charles A. Thomson, of the Foreign Policy Association, New York;

Miss Francis R. Grant, vice president of the Roerich Museum, New York; Dr. Hubert C. Herring, of the Committee on Cultural Relations with Latin America, New York; Mr. Devere Allen, editor of *The World Tomorrow*, New York; and Sr. Alberto Rembao, editor of *La Nueva Democracia*, New York.

The prizes were awarded on June 10, 1934, at a special ceremony held in New York at the headquarters of the society. The winners were Senhor Celso Frota Pessoa, of Brazil, \$300; Señorita Martha García Ochoa, of Cuba, \$200; and Señor Neptalí G. León, of Ecuador, \$100. Six special prizes of \$10 each were awarded to Señores Donato Gerardi and Roberto Pecach, both of Argentina; Miss Joan N. Harvey, of Bermuda; Señor T. G. Elio, of Bolivia; Señor José Ramón J. Mejía, of the Dominican Republic; and M. Philippe Jocelyn, of Haiti. Consular officials of their respective countries received the awards in the names of the three chief prize winners and of M. Jocelyn; the other prizes were to be mailed directly to the recipients.

Senhor Frota Pessoa's prize-winning essay was read at the ceremony and published in the June issue of *New History*, the monthly publication of the society. Those winning the second and third prizes were to appear in the July and August numbers respectively.



LATIN AMERICAN LIBRARY AND LITERARY NEWS

Library classification rules in Spanish.—Señorita Juana Manrique de Lara of the Library of the Ministry of Education of Mexico, who studied at Columbia University on a fellowship from the Mexican Government some years ago, has prepared in Spanish regulations for the use of catalogers in assigning subject headings. This work is being published in the *Boletín de la Asociación de Bibliotecarios Mexicanos*.

Libraries in Uruguay.—The President of Uruguay issued a decree on June 8, 1934, authorizing the Ministry of Public Instruction to assemble collections of books by outstanding national and foreign authors, to be donated to the public libraries in cities in the Departments of Artigas, Rivera, Cerro Largo, Treinta y Tres, and Rocha. The sum of 1,500 pesos was appropriated to cover the cost of carrying out the decree. Municipalities in those Departments were also asked to cooperate in appointing Library Development Committees.

The National Library of Uruguay recently celebrated the 119th anniversary of its founding. Dr. Arturo Searone, a member of the staff for the past 34 years and director since 1922, received many letters of congratulation and praise for the excellent work accomplished under his direction.

Traveling library in Guatemala.—The Ministry of Education of Guatemala has established a traveling library for teachers in secondary schools. The collection includes important works on pedagogy and other books which will aid the teacher.

Encouragement of Argentine literature.—A committee has been formed in Argentina, with headquarters in Buenos Aires and corresponding members in important centers throughout the country, to encourage Argentine literature. According to the prospectus, the committee will sponsor each month some outstanding book of an Argentine publisher. The first one to be announced is *Arano*, a book of verse by Romildo Risso, the celebrated author of *Ñandubay*. Among the members of the committee are José B. and Eduardo H. Pinasco, Enrique Sanguinetti, Francisco B. Raffo, Santiago Jenkins, Francisco Martínez Buela, Juan Hernández Larguía, Manuel L. Echesortu, José Grasso Grognet, Luis Ciafardini, Juan, Carlos, and Guillermo Ortiz Grognet, and Augusto Scarpitti.—The LIBRARIAN, Columbus Memorial Library.



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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



A STREET IN TAXCO, MEXICO

OCTOBER

1934

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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Courtesy of the Brazilian Embassy in Washington.

DR. GETULIO VARGAS, PRESIDENT OF BRAZIL.

He was inaugurated July 20, 1934, for a four-year term.



DR. GETULIO VARGAS PRESIDENT OF BRAZIL

DR. GETULIO VARGAS, who was inaugurated as Constitutional President of Brazil on July 20 of this year, after three years as Provisional Chief of the Government, is a man whose career has been devoted to law and to public life.

The Chief Executive was born in São Borja, Rio Grande do Sul, fifty years ago. He comes of a family long established in the State; his father, a general in the Brazilian Army, played a distinguished part in the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of the republic in 1889.

A few years after graduating from the law school in Pôrto Alegre, in his native State, Dr. Vargas was elected to the House of Representatives of Rio Grande do Sul; there he became the leader of the Republican Party, to which he belonged. When, some time later, he was elected to the Federal House of Deputies from the same State, he assumed the leadership of the Republicans there. In both the State and the Federal Houses, Dr. Vargas distinguished himself by his legal writings and opinions; he was one of the Committee of Twenty-one appointed by President Bernardes to revise the Constitution, the revision being adopted September 7, 1926.

During all these years he continued the practice of law, ceasing only when he was appointed Minister of the Treasury during the presidency of Washington Luis. He left the Cabinet after his unanimous election as governor of Rio Grande do Sul.

Dr. Vargas was a candidate for the presidency in 1930, and after the political upheaval later that same year became Provisional Chief of the Government. The ability of his administration was recognized in his recent election as Chief Executive by the Constituent Assembly.

He will thus direct the Government in the new phase of Brazilian life which began with the promulgation of the second Republican Constitution on July 15.

President Vargas has shown himself to be calm and conciliatory, energetic and tolerant. These qualities have won for him the sympathy and confidence of the great majority of the Brazilians. His administration during the past three years was characterized by strict adherence to a program of economy which, however, did not prevent him from carrying out many necessary public works. He was successful in coordinating the divergent political ambitions of the several States and inducing them to work together for the peaceful solution of national problems.

In foreign affairs, Dr. Vargas has maintained Brazil's traditional policy of friendship with all powers, especially those of America. The good offices of his administration were effective in the solution of the Leticia incident, for which a protocol was concluded in Rio de Janeiro last May, and in the reestablishment of relations between Mexico and Venezuela and between Uruguay and Peru. In October 1933, also during his incumbency, President Justo of Argentina visited the Brazilian capital, an occasion marked by the signing of several important treaties drawn up between the two great South American Republics, as mentioned in the BULLETIN for January 1934.

Early in his administration Dr. Vargas received another international visitor. On August 18 President Terra of Uruguay landed in Rio de Janeiro, the first time a chief executive of that republic had been the official guest of its northern neighbor. The juridical ties binding the two nations were further strengthened on this occasion by the signature of treaties on judicial assistance and on obligatory conciliation and arbitration, as well as an additional protocol to the extradition treaty of October 6, 1933.



DR. HÉCTOR DAVID CASTRO MINISTER OF EL SALVADOR IN WASHINGTON

THE new Minister of El Salvador to the United States, Dr. Héctor David Castro, although a young man, has had a distinguished diplomatic career. Born on April 22, 1894, in San Salvador, he received his doctorate in jurisprudence and social and political science from the National University of El Salvador in 1915.

Dr. Castro began his public career as district attorney in San Salvador, in 1917, followed by brief periods as judge and Assistant Secretary of the Treasury and of War. His first foreign post was that of consul in Liverpool; after six months, however—in November 1920—he was transferred to Washington, where he remained for seven years, first as secretary of legation, next as secretary of the Salvadorean delegation to the Conference on Central American Affairs held there from December 1922–February 1923, and then as Chargé d’Affaires *ad interim*, until April 1927. On his return to El Salvador, he became Assistant Secretary of Foreign Affairs, attending as delegate of his country the Sixth International Conference of American States held at Habana in 1928. For five years, 1928–33, he was professor of public and private international law in the National University of El Salvador, and during that period he was also the director general of the tax office (1928–29), Minister of Foreign Affairs (1931), and president of the National University (1933).

He reentered the diplomatic service with his appointment as Minister to Uruguay in 1933. While in that country, he acted as chairman of the Salvadorean delegation to the Seventh International Conference of American States which met at Montevideo last December.

In again assuming a seat on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, therefore, Dr. Castro brings to his duties a wide knowledge of the American Continent.

When he presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on August 17, 1934, Dr. Castro transmitted the wish of his Government to strengthen the relations between the two nations and increase good understanding and friendship still further. As a concrete example of



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DR. HÉCTOR DAVID CASTRO

ENVOY EXTRAORDINARY AND MINISTER PLENIPOTENTIARY OF EL SALVADOR
TO THE UNITED STATES.

the efforts being made to carry out this purpose, the new Minister cited the way in which, in spite of unfavorable conditions, work is being carried forward on the portion of the Pan American Highway passing through El Salvador.

In welcoming the Minister of El Salvador to the Capital, President Roosevelt reciprocated the wish of the Central American Republic for a closer rapprochement between the two governments, and expressed his gratification at the advance of the Pan American Highway in that country, because of his conviction that improved communications lead to better acquaintance and a better understanding of each other's problems and thus contribute to the cause of world progress.



SOME BRAZILIAN COLONIAL HISTORIANS

By ALAN K. MANCHESTER, Ph.D.

(Part II)*

THE story of the life of Gaspar da Madre de Deus is in striking contrast to that of Pedro Taques. Like the author of the *Nobiliarchia*, Madre de Deus belonged to a family of high social position; but unlike his friend, Gaspar never suffered financial want, for the family fortune, rated as one of the greatest in the captaincy, encountered no reverses during his long life. Born on a peaceful, opulent plantation, he prepared himself for a career in the church, progressed steadily and rapidly to high honors, rendered notable service to his order and to eighteenth-century Brazil, and retired to spend a serene, studious life near his beloved Santos.

According to the *Nobiliarchia* Gaspar was connected with some of the oldest families of the captaincy—the Lemes, the Buenos da Ribeira, the Siqueiras Mendonças, the Pires, and the Carvoeiros. Through the Pires he inherited the Tupy blood of an Indian princess baptized by Anchieta, and through the Carvoeiros the Indian blood of Isabel Dias, the wife of João Ramalho. His grandparents on both sides of the family occupied high governmental positions and accumulated sizable fortunes which his parents increased. His father, Colonel Domingos Texeira de Azevedo, possessed large plantations near Santos, and vast grants along the coast of Paraná, in the gold fields of Minas Geraes, and elsewhere. He died prematurely, leaving one of the largest fortunes in Brazil.

Gaspar's mother, thus widowed when she was 35, evidenced an administrative ability and a vigor foreign to the women of her day. With the responsibility of educating six small children and of preserving this vast fortune until her sons should grow to maturity, Anna de Siqueira e Mendonça fell back on her own remarkable ability and sought refuge in an austere piety.

Of the four sons Gaspar was the oldest. Born February 9, 1715, he was given the name of his paternal grandfather, Gaspar Texeira de Azevedo. His early years were spent on a rice and sugar plantation in the fertile plain near Santos. It was a lovely spot. In the distance lay the sea, blue and restful; in the opposite direction the Serra do Cubatão rose abruptly, sometimes vividly green and clear, sometimes purple with haze or drenched in clouds. Palms rustled in the breeze from the ocean and glinted in the sunlight. Fruit trees in the fore-

* Part I, which appeared in the September issue, discussed the life and work of Pedro Taques.

ground surrounded the cabins of slaves and laborers while fields of rice and sugarcane stretched off into the distance. Here Gaspar was born and here he lived an uneventful sort of life, its placidity broken by numerous saint's day celebrations when masses were sung "to the din of musical instruments" and by occasional festivals noted for their "comedy and banquets." Gaspar never forgot these early days.

As he reached the age of adolescence when his mother could no longer teach him, the family moved to the town house in Santos, a two-story dwelling located at the end of the old Rua Direita, the main street of the town. There he carried on his studies until in 1731, when he was 16 years of age, he left for Bahia, a novitiate in the Benedictine order. One year later he received his hood, taking the name of Frei Gaspar da Madre de Deus.

In Bahia he plunged into philosophy, history, and ecclesiastical studies in an atmosphere conducive to learning. An aged friar from Porto, Dr. Antonio de S. Bernardo, recently transferred to the Benedictine order, was a fellow novitiate. A learned man, the friar conceived an instant affection for the young Gaspar and taught him many things. Moreover, under the inspiration of one of the greatest governors the colony ever had, Vasco Fernandes Cesar de Menezes, Count of Sabugosa, the capital was enjoying a kind of renaissance. In 1742 the first academy of letters in Brazil was founded, the *Academia Brasileira dos Esquecidos*.¹⁴ Futile as its European prototypes, Gongoresque and superficial, the academy is nevertheless significant as an evidence of the development of the colony along literary lines. Sabugosa was attempting to stir the colonials to some sort of intellectual animation. Two years before Gaspar's arrival there appeared the *História da América Portuguesa* ¹⁵ and the venerable Rocha Pitta placidly shed his glory over the studious circle of the capital, a circle which Gaspar frequented with keen interest. Later he, like Pedro Taques, criticized the famous chronicler, but with less severity, for he could not forget the personal inspiration which he had derived from his early contact with the old historian.

At the command of his superiors, Gaspar was shifted to the majestic monastery in Rio de Janeiro, there to complete his studies. In 1740 he passed his final examinations, winning the title of *passante*.¹⁶ A diploma which enabled him to serve as a substitute of, and assistant to, the instructors in the monastery was conferred upon him by the faculty and by the abbot. For further study he went to Portugal. Three years later, when he was only twenty-eight, he occupied the chair of theology in the Rio monastery. In that capacity he gave a

¹⁴ Brazilian Academy of Forgotten Men.—EDITOR.

¹⁵ "History of Portuguese America."—EDITOR.

¹⁶ A religious who attended courses of philosophy or theology and took part in the weekly academic discussions.—EDITOR.

series of lectures on philosophy. Until 1919 the fame of these lectures rested upon the eulogy of Pedro Taques; in that year the manuscript of the actual lectures was discovered in the library of the Abbey in São Paulo, perhaps the only example preserved of the philosophy taught in eighteenth-century Brazil. In 1749 in the presence of a large audience presided over by the captain-general of Rio he defended theses drawn from theology and philosophy before a committee of the most gifted theologians of the city, and won the degree of doctor in theology. As an orator he won renown and his sermons became famous.



From "Historia da America Portuguesa", by Sebastião da Rocha Pitta.

BAHIA IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

In Bahia, Gaspar da Madre de Deus entered the Benedictine order as a novice in 1731, thus beginning a career in which he was to reach the highest honors and, as the chief chronicler of the order, achieve for himself fame as a notable historian.

The year following his doctorate his mother and sisters moved to Rio, where the two sisters entered a convent which they and their inheritance were largely instrumental in founding. One of them died a few years later, but the other eventually became the abbess of the convent. Of the six children five took orders: Gaspar and one brother became Benedictines; another brother after receiving the degree of master of arts in the Jesuit school in São Paulo became a secular priest, and the two sisters entered the convent in Rio. Only one brother, José Tavares, remained outside of the church to take care of the family fortune and he died shortly after the two sisters took orders.

In 1759 there was inaugurated in Bahia another of the ephemeral academies of letters. The one promoted by Sabugosa in 1724 was short-lived. A second, founded 1736, was called the Academia dos Felizes. A third, called the Academia dos Selectos, appeared in 1752. The fourth, known as the Academia dos Renascidos, was born in 1759. Limited to forty members in imitation of the French Academy, it boasted a large number of corresponding members—from the permanent director of the Spanish Royal Academy of History to a modest vicar in the mines of Goyaz. Madre de Deus was number 40 among the corresponding members. This fourth academy died in less than a year, killed by the vigorous measures of the Marquis of Pombal.

Following his doctor's examination Gaspar entered upon a career of administrative activity. In 1756, at the General Council of the Benedictine order held in the primate monastery of Tibães in Portugal, he was elected abbot of São Paulo, a post which he refused as it would interrupt his classes in philosophy and theology and would handicap the administration of the family fortune, the management of which had devolved upon him. Four years later the General Council elected him *definidor primeiro* with a seat on the Council of State of the order in Brazil. As a *definidor* he would formulate projects of reform, receive complaints, and suggest disciplinary measures. Again he refused, not wishing to leave Rio de Janeiro.

A few years later a call came which he could not reject. His old friend Antonio de S. Bernardo, reelected abbot of the monastery in Rio by the General Council at Tibães, felt that a younger man was necessary. The discovery of gold in the mountainous region to the north and northwest of Rio in the last decade of the seventeenth century and of diamonds in the upper valley of the Jequitinhonha in the seventeen-twenties had shifted the economic center of the colony from Bahia to Rio. Of the three routes that penetrated to the heart of the mining region the shortest and most accessible was the one which, leading almost due north from Rio, climbed the Serra dos Orgãos and descended to the valley of the Parahyba do Sul, there to find a pass through the Mantiqueira mountains to the center of the gold region and to headwaters of rivers that flowed north and northeast into the Atlantic or north to the Amazon or west to the Paraná system. Rio became the *entrepôt* of a stream of merchandise and supplies going in and of gold coming out, and the port of entry most used by the wave of immigrants who were peopling the region opened up by the *bandeirantes* of São Paulo. The importance of Rio became apparent to the Court in Lisbon and in 1763, the year after Bernardo's reelection, the capital of the colony was transferred from Bahia to Rio. The abbot, now well advanced in years, felt that a younger man should assume the heavier burden of directing the monastery located in the capital of the colony.

Moreover, the monastery itself was in a critical condition. Burdened with the intolerable debt of more than 57 contos, an immense sum for those days, the Brothers were anxiously watching the development of the policy of the Marquis of Pombal toward the religious orders in Brazil and Portugal. The Jesuits had been expelled from Brazil in 1759, and three years later Pombal broke off relations between Portugal and the Vatican. By 1763 his animosity toward the regular orders was clearly evident. In search of more vigorous shoulders on which to cast the burden now too heavy for him, Bernardo selected Gaspar.



From "A Architecture no Brasil".

BENEDICTINE MONASTERY, RIO DE JANEIRO.

Answering a call from its venerable abbot, Madre de Deus took charge of the administration of the monastery in 1763, a position he filled with such success that he was elected provincial abbot 3 years later.

On October 2, 1763, Madre de Deus assumed the direction of the Benedictine monastery in Rio.

Bernardo's confidence was well placed, for Gaspar reorganized the administration of the monastery, improved the properties belonging to it, reformed the practices of the brothers, inaugurated a regime of order and activity, and successfully maintained the interests of the order against very threatening attacks by civil authorities. In three years he reduced the debt by more than half. So well did he fill the difficult position that the General Council in Portugal passed a special vote of commendation and elevated him to the highest dignity of the

order in Brazil by electing him provincial abbot for the three-year term beginning 1766.

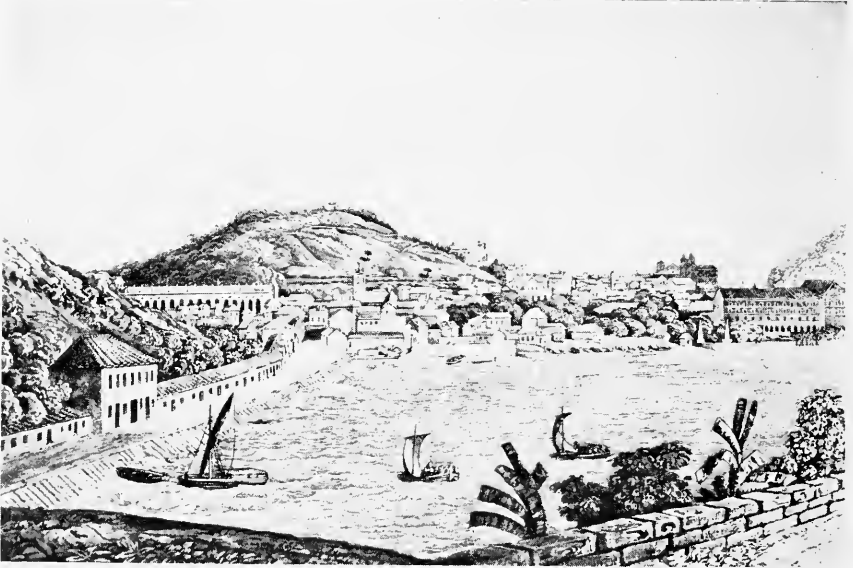
Thus he inaugurated his visits to the five abbeys, three priories, and six presidencies of the order, located from Santos to Parahyba do Norte. Indefatigably he investigated the records of each monastery and administrative division; and as he carefully examined the documents filed away in the archives of the order, he, like Pedro Taques, obtained an insight into the past of the colony that whetted an appetite for historical investigation. In recognition of an able administration the General Council elected him abbot of the monastery in Bahia, the primate monastery of the order in Brazil. Not yet 55, Madre de Deus had reached the top of the ladder in the colony and it was not at all unreasonable to expect that a call to even higher honors and responsibilities would come. He had rendered a notable service to his order and to Brazil; should he embark on a road that would lead across the seas to Portugal?

In the strenuous years of administrative activity he had cherished the memory of the serenity and repose of the plantation near Santos. A student forced to live the life of an administrator, he longed for a chance to get back to the quiet and meditation of the scholar. He had performed his duty well; now he refused the appointment to Bahia, turned his back upon his career as a prelate, and retired to the little monastery of Montserrate near Santos where he and Friar Miguel Motta with half a dozen slaves constituted the sole inhabitants. He was 54 years old, with 30 years of serene study and simple, unaffected, unhurried life yet before him.

The chronicle of these 30 years is easily told. Despite his determination not to accept further administrative tasks, several were offered and some few were accepted. From 1769 on he was general *visitador* of the monasteries of the captaincy of São Paulo, a post which gave him access to splendid archive material. He was chief chronicler of the Benedictine order from 1774 to his death in 1800. Late in the seventies one of the rarest honors accorded a colonial was rendered him when the Court in Lisbon nominated him Bishop of Madeira. Content in the serenity of his retirement, Gaspar rejected the post, respectfully but resolutely. But when in 1780 the call came for him to serve as Master of Novitiates in Rio, he could not refuse. Sixteen years earlier Pombal had forbidden the regular orders to initiate novices with the intention of killing off future generations of friars; now D. Maria I repealed the prohibition and Gaspar could not refuse the task of instructing the first class to enter the order in so many years. After the necessary sojourn in Rio he returned to Santos, never to leave the captaincy again.

The sister who had become abbess of the convent in Rio died before Gaspar retired; his mother who had returned to occupy the

two-story house on Rua Direita died five years later. The brother who had followed Gaspar into the Benedictine order likewise followed him in his rise to high honors, for he was elected provincial abbot of Brazil and retired in 1789, at the end of the three-year term, to his monastery in Olinda, never to return to the South. Pedro Taques, whose companionship Gaspar prized above all except that of his mother, died in 1777, leaving Madre de Deus as the only figure to relieve the profound intellectual depression which had settled upon the captaincy. More and more Gaspar turned to his archive research and to study and meditation.



From "Journal of a Voyage to Brazil".

RIO DE JANEIRO A CENTURY AGO

Maria Graham, an English visitor to Brazil early in the nineteenth century, so pictured the city in a record of her travels, published in 1824. Due to the growing importance of Rio de Janeiro, it was made the capital of the colony in 1763 in place of Bahia.

In 1795 he completed four-score years of life, a quarter of a century of which had been spent in retirement. Of the voluminous manuscripts which he had written nothing had been printed. The failure to publish was not due, certainly, to lack of financial means. Self-deprecation, uncertainty of the value of a type of work disdained by his contemporaries in the captaincy, religious distrust of self-advertisement—perhaps these motives prevented aggressive action on his part.

Fearing the loss of the results of a quarter of a century of painstaking labor, Diogo de Toledo Lara e Ordonhes, *ouvidor* in Cuyabá, determined to save what he could. Elected a corresponding mem-

ber of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Lisbon, the *ouvidor* maintained close relations with prominent literary figures of the metropolis. The Royal Academy had taken on extraordinary vigor since 1780, one of the principal phases of its work being the publication of material on Portuguese history. The volumes issued during the next half century constitute an extremely valuable source for the student interested in colonial Brazil. Diogo Ordonhes, a friend of Gaspar's and a member of the Academy, thus became the means by which the work of Madre de Deus was preserved.

He requested of his friend the manuscript of his principal work. Gaspar after some hesitation sent him two books of his *Fundação da Capitania de S. Vicente e Acções de Martin Affonso de Souza*. The third book he refused to send, wishing to polish it, revise it, put it in definitive form—and that book has disappeared. The Academy submitted the work to a committee which recommended publication under the title of *Memorias para a Historia da Capitania de S. Vicente*.¹⁷ Some Brazilianisms were edited out of the manuscript and a questionable grammatical construction was modified. The changes were slight, however. The publication was issued in 1797, Gaspar receiving his copy the following year when he was eighty-three years of age. The work received instant recognition among his friends in Brazil and among the reading public of Portugal.

For a year and a half longer Madre de Deus worked on the third book of the *Memorias*, continued his chronicle of the principal happenings of the colony, and worked on manuscripts. On January 28, 1800, he died in Santos at the age of 85.

As in the case of Pedro Taques, only a small portion of the mass of manuscripts written by Gaspar has been preserved. Of these the principal works are: the *Memorias*, a *Noticia dos annos em que se descobriu o Brasil e das entradas das religiões e suas fundações*,¹⁸ the *Relação dos capitães loco-tenentes da capitania de S. Vicente*,¹⁹ the *Notas avulsas sobre a historia de S. Paulo*,²⁰ and several other pieces. Admired by historians from the southern part of Brazil, he was ridiculed by those from the North. In 1876 the eminent Candido Mendes attacked him viciously, arguing on the basis of deductions that Gaspar falsified and forged documents to support his sectional prejudice in favor of the *Paulistas*. Madre de Deus cites the will of João Ramalho, dating it 1580; Candido Mendes demonstrated by logical reasoning that João Ramalho must have died 20 years earlier. Discredited in one point, the entire work of the Benedictine fell

¹⁷ "Notes for the history of the Captaincy of São Vicente."—EDITOR.

¹⁸ "Account of the years in which Brazil was discovered and of the arrival of the religious orders and their foundations."—EDITOR.

¹⁹ "Report of the lieutenant captains of the captaincy of São Vicente."—EDITOR.

²⁰ "Scattered notes on the history of São Paulo."—EDITOR.

under suspicion. Then Azevedo Marques turned up a document of the Camara of São Paulo proving that João Ramalho was still alive and vigorous in 1564, four years after he should have been dead by Candido Mendes' chronology, and Washington Luis discovered another document bearing witness to the will mentioned by Gaspar. Again a document transcribed verbatim by Madre de Deus was not in the archives cited by him as the source; therefore he invented his evidence and was not to be trusted. In 1915 Affonso d'Escragnolle Taunay stumbled upon the document in the archives of Rio, where it had lain since 1800, and it was *ipsis verbis* as Gaspar had transcribed it. Argumentation was refuted by documentation.

A reputation which had suffered an eclipse for half a century rose again to a preëminent place in Brazilian historiography. The discovery of documents by earnest archivists had validated the honesty and carefulness of the eighteenth-century Benedictine friar. In the

*O D^o Fr. Gaspar da Madre de D^o M. Inhabla
do na sagrada Theologia e Prov.^{al} de Orsem de S.
Bonito do Brasil, Visitando n^oz este N^otr^o de
N^o Irr^o da Assumpção da Li^o de S. Paulo, e tomando
contay n^ozle livro, offerece de gesto da Mordomea, aedamoy...*

Fr. Gaspar da Madre de D^o.

AUTOGRAPH OF GASPAR DA MADRE DE DEUS.

This facsimile of his autograph appears in the third edition of "Memorias para a Historia da Capitania de S. Vicente" published in Brazil in 1920.

last two decades he has attained his rightful position as one of the greatest historians Brazil has produced.

And why is his work so worthy of admiration? Chiefly because of the passion for documentation which in him amounted almost to a mania. Slowly, with minute exactness and careful verification, he accumulated his material from the archives of the Royal Treasury in São Paulo, from the voluminous depositories of state in Bahia and Rio de Janeiro, from the registry of land grants, from the civil and ecclesiastical registry offices, and from the archives of his own family, of the *camaras* of São Vicente, Santos, Itanhaem, and São Paulo, and of the Benedictine monasteries of Brazil. Citations and transcriptions abound. The careful exactness and documentary basis of his work are modern, lending to his writing an authenticity lacking in the chroniclers of colonial Brazil. As in the case of Pedro Taques, scores upon scores of documents cited or transcribed by him

have been lost; his work constitutes the only source for much of the material contained therein.

He evidences various faults: a sectional spirit based on his love for things *Paulista* pervades his work; he is biased by the same bent to caste distinction manifested by Pedro Taques; he is inordinately proud of the first families of São Paulo and of his own line; he recognizes that he is a man known throughout Brazil; and the major portion of the work preserved treats of the region to the south of Rio de Janeiro. He is by no means a stylist and he advanced some questionable scientific notions. And yet he is one of the very few colonial historians of Brazil who based his work so fully and accurately on archive material.

In their belief that, however brilliant the intellect, deduction and armchair reasoning are insufficient grounds on which to base historical writing, Pedro Taques de Almeida Paes Leme and Gaspar da Madre de Deus resemble the modern historian. Surrounded by those who failed to understand the value of work so laboriously and painstakingly done, they yet produced in the fragments which have been preserved historical material of infinite importance to the student interested in colonial Brazil.



A TRIO OF AMERICAN HEROINES

By MILLEDGE L. BONHAM, Jr.

Professor of History in Hamilton College

IT is significant that when a people personifies its country in a reverent mood it always selects the figure of a woman to typify the nation, while for purposes of ridicule "mere man" has to serve. "Britannia", "Italia", "Our Lady of the Snows", "Columbia", proclaim the serious attitude, while "Uncle Sam", "Hans", "Pat", "Fritz", "John Bull", "Jacques Bonhomme", pertain to the cartoonist and the caricature.

The New World, like the Old, can boast of noble and heroic women. Three young girls exemplify respectively the Celtic, the Latin, and the Nordic spirits in the history of America. "Every schoolboy"—as Macaulay used to say—in Canada knows Madeleine de Verchères; every schoolboy in Nicaragua knows Rafaela de Herrera; every schoolboy in the United States *ought* to know Elizabeth Zane. Since there is good reason to fear that many adults in this country do not know her, much less the other two, it seems useful and appropriate to bring these three together for the admiration and information of present-day readers.

When the Marquis de Tracy arrived as governor of Canada in 1665 he brought with him the famous regiment of Carignan-Salières. A few years later this regiment was mustered out of service and its officers and men were encouraged to settle in Canada. Among the officers availing themselves of this opportunity was Monsieur de Verchères, who received a *seigneurie* on the south shore of the St. Lawrence, about 20 miles below Montreal. Here he erected a fort and a blockhouse and, with a few retainers and his own family, laid out his farm. From the frequency of Indian attacks upon this exposed homestead the Verchères *seigneurie* became familiarly and appropriately known as "Castle Dangerous."

At that time the Verchères family consisted of Monsieur and Madame, their daughter Madeleine and two younger sons. Monsieur de Verchères was a member of the governor's council, a fact which necessitated occasional trips to Quebec on the business of the province. He was summoned to a council meeting by Governor Frontenac in October 1692, during a lull in the war with the English colonies and their allies, the dreaded Iroquois. As all seemed quiet and serene he had no hesitation in leaving, although his wife was then visiting friends in Montreal. Entering his canoe he departed for Quebec,

leaving the homestead in the care of the fourteen-year-old Madeleine. One bright October day (the 22d), while the peasants were garnering the harvest of the farm, Mademoiselle Madeleine, accompanied by one man, was inspecting her domain. Suddenly firing was heard and she saw the unarmed peasants fleeing toward the fort. Iroquois warriors soon burst into view, firing at the fugitives. Madeleine hurried to the fort and assumed charge of its defense. Besides the women and children there were in the fort two soldiers, a hired man, an old man of eighty, and Madeleine's two brothers. The courageous girl had the gates closed and barred and began firing upon the Indians with musket and cannon. All day she kept up a strenuous show of resistance, completely deceiving the attackers as to the strength of the garrison; all night, she, the men, and the boys kept watch and called the hours regularly to forestall surprise. For a week she sustained the siege, her most difficult task being to keep up the courage of the men in the fort. Finally it was relieved by a detachment of troops sent by Callières, the commandant at Montreal. In her old age, at the request of Governor Beauharnois, Madeleine related to him the story, which he had transcribed and preserved in the royal archives at Paris. Through the good offices of the wife of the Minister of Marine, Madeleine was later granted a pension.

Next in our trio, in point of time, comes the "Central American Joan of Arc", Rafaela Herrera y Udiarte. Don José Herrera y Santomayor was, in 1762, the commandant of the Castillo de la Purísima Concepción, a fort now known as Castillo Viejo, on the San Juan River in Nicaragua. Don José was the only commissioned officer at the fort and his garrison was a motley aggregation of Spanish Americans, negroes, and mulattoes. His wife and their thirteen-year-old daughter, Doña Rafaela, were the only women at that desolate post in the jungle. Soon the resources of the fort and its vicinity, as far as amusement was concerned, were exhausted. So Rafaela, to relieve the tedium of garrison life, teased and cajoled her father into teaching her how to manage the cannon which constituted the major armament of the fort. Into this new game the soldiers entered with zest and Rafaela became their idol.

It will be recalled that at that time Austria, France, Spain, Russia, and Sweden were engaged in the Seven Years' War against England, Hanover, and Prussia. Don José was stricken with disease in August 1762. Hardly had he expired when the sergeant in command of the fort rushed into the death chamber to announce the approach of a large British force coming up the river from the coast. The garrison, so tragically bereft of its commander, was in a state of panic, ready to flee to the forest or to surrender. Throwing aside her grief, Rafaela assembled the men and asked if they would obey her orders. Partly from pity at her desolation, partly from admiration of her

gallantry, partly from shame at being outdone in courage by a girl, but largely from relief at finding someone willing to assume leadership and responsibility, they pledged her their loyalty and support. So when an English officer appeared with a flag of truce and demanded the commandant, Rafaela came upon the parapet and replied that her father was ill, but that she represented him. Thereupon the British emissary abruptly demanded the surrender of the fortress.

"Are you unaware, then, that the castles of His Catholic Majesty are taken only by force of arms?" was the startling reply of the intrepid girl.

"But your pickets, whom we have captured, have confessed that the commandant is ill, the place is defenseless and resistance is useless", insisted the Englishman.

"That we shall see", was the calm reply of Rafaela, who at once set about preparing for action, after which she buried her father with military honors.

Shortly the English appeared in considerable force, landed, and made camp contemptuously near the fort. The sight of this formidable array dismayed the garrison, but with burning words Rafaela shamed them and inspired them to resist to the death. She commenced the engagement herself without waiting for the enemy to attack, and personally discharged a cannon at the British bivouac. Her third shot struck the tent of the commander and killed him. Enraged at this, the British made a fierce assault upon the fort; it was repelled with determination, Rafaela's example having driven all idea of yielding from the hearts of her men. During the night the English renewed the attack, hoping to profit by the darkness. Although it is extremely unlikely that Rafaela had ever heard of Shakespeare, much less read *Macbeth*, she took a leaf, literally, out of Malcolm's book. For having her men gather bushy branches from the forest, she spread upon them sheets soaked in rum, set fire to the sheets, and cast the branches upon the stream, so that they lighted up the British approach and deprived it of all the hoped-for advantage of darkness. By such devices she maintained her position for five days, when disease, losses in battle, and disgust caused the English to abandon the siege and withdraw from the San Juan Valley.

Soon Doña Rafaela and her mother departed for a more civilized home. In due time Rafaela married, but the age of thirty-two found her a poverty-stricken widow with five children, two of them crippled. The Captain-General of the Province, learning of her plight, reminded the Minister of the Council of the Indies (the able Don José de Gálvez), of Rafaela's great service to the Crown 19 years before. As a result of these representations King Carlos III ordered (November 11, 1781) that a pension be granted Rafaela in recognition of her heroic defense of the Castillo de la Purísima Concepción.

The first building upon the site of the present city of Wheeling, West Virginia, was a blockhouse erected about the time that Rafaela was defending a similar building on the San Juan. The blockhouse was built by Ebenezer Zane, who had come thither with his family from Berkeley County, Virginia. A small frontier village grew up about the blockhouse, which became known later as Fort Henry, in honor of Governor Patrick Henry.

Indians attacked the settlement in 1777, and all the villagers took refuge in the fort. At first the defenders held the savages at bay quite satisfactorily, but soon the powder supply ran low. One of Zane's sons said that he had a keg of powder in his cabin about sixty yards from the blockhouse, and offered to try to secure it. His eighteen-year-old sister, Elizabeth, pointed out that the safety of the women and children depended upon the men, so since her death would not lessen the fighting strength of the fort, she demanded permission to go for the powder. Her father and brothers at first refused to consent and several men volunteered to make the desperate attempt. Elizabeth pleaded and argued, showing that if she were killed it would only lessen the number to be protected, while the death of even one man would seriously diminish the strength of the protectors and so increase the peril of the women and children. Finally she gained her point and slipped out of the fort while the men made vigorous demonstrations on the other sides of the blockhouse.

Elizabeth succeeded in crawling through the tall grass without detection. Finding the powder, she at once realized that she could neither carry nor roll the keg across that sixty-yard interval. It would not be practicable to crawl back, she must run her fastest. Wherefore she emptied the keg of powder into her apron and dashed for the fort. The Indians saw her and sent a fusillade after her. Had a single bullet struck her apron she would have perished horribly. Perhaps the spirits of Joan of Arc and Madeleine de Verchères watched over her, for she reached the blockhouse in safety, thus enabling her friends to drive off the red allies of the British.

Elizabeth Zane lived to a good old age, dying at St. Clairsville, Ohio, sometime after 1840. What a reunion her spirit must have had with those of Madeline and Rafaela!

The fame of Madeleine de Verchères is not the property of Canada alone; Rafael de Herrera belongs not only to Nicaragua; Elizabeth Zane is not merely a heroine of the United States. All three are American heroines of whom *all* Americans, from Melville Sound to Cape Horn, can justly be proud. French American, Spanish American, Anglo American, they were alike in their patriotism, their courage, and their resourcefulness. They were worthy representatives of the races of Joan of Arc, Isabella of Castile, and Elizabeth Tudor: they were worthy exemplars for all America.

MULTILATERAL COMMERCIAL AGREEMENT OPENED FOR SIGNATURE

A MULTILATERAL agreement for the promotion of international trade was opened for signature to all the nations of the world by the Pan American Union on July 15th, 1934. This document had its origin in a resolution introduced by the Secretary of State of the United States at the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo, Uruguay, in December 1933. Because of lack of time at the conference to give full consideration to this agreement, it was decided to empower the Pan American Union to set in motion the machinery to give practical effect thereto.

This agreement contemplates the adoption of a universal pact—or at least one which should be accepted by the nations of greatest economic power—referring to multilateral commercial treaties which should include stipulations preventing countries from invoking the unconditional most-favored-nation clause in bilateral treaties without assuming the corresponding obligations. The agreement is an outgrowth of, and complements, the resolution introduced by the United States delegation at, and approved later by, the Montevideo Conference, looking toward equality of treatment by all nations to all other nations in international trade relationships, through the operation of the unconditional most-favored-nation clause in commercial intercourse.

TEXT OF AGREEMENT

This agreement was opened for signature at the Pan American Union, and certified copies of it were sent to all the nations of the world under date of July 16, 1934. The text is as follows:

The High Contracting Parties, desirous of encouraging the development of economic relations among the peoples of the world by means of multilateral conventions, the benefits of which ought not to inure to countries which refuse to assume the obligations thereof; and desirous also, while reaffirming as a fundamental doctrine the policy of equality of treatment, to develop such policy in a manner harmonious with the development of general economic rapprochement in which every country shall do its part; have decided to enter into an agreement for these purposes, as set forth in the following articles:

ARTICLE I

The High Contracting Parties, with respect to their relations with one another, will not, except as provided in Article II hereof, invoke the obligations of the most-favored-nation clause for the purpose of obtaining from Parties to multilateral conventions of the type hereinafter stated, the advantages or benefits enjoyed by the Parties thereto.

The multilateral economic conventions contemplated in this article are those which are of general applicability, which include a trade area of substantial size, which have as their objective the liberalization and promotion of international trade or other international economic intercourse, and which are open to adoption by all countries.

ARTICLE II

Notwithstanding the stipulation of Article I, any High Contracting Party may demand, from a State with which it maintains a treaty containing the most-favored-nation clause, the fulfillment of that clause insofar as such High Contracting Party accords in fact to such State the benefits which it claims.

ARTICLE III

The present agreement is operative as respects each High Contracting Party on the date of signature by such Party. It shall be open for signature on behalf of any State and shall remain operative indefinitely, but any Party may terminate its own obligations hereunder three months after it has given to the Pan American Union notice of such intention.

Notwithstanding the stipulations of the foregoing paragraph, any State desiring to do so may sign the present agreement *ad referendum*, which agreement in this case, shall not take effect, with respect to such State, until after the deposit of the instrument of ratification, in conformity with its constitutional procedure.

ARTICLE IV

This agreement is a single document in English, Spanish, Portuguese and French, all of which texts are equally authoritative. It shall be deposited with the Pan American Union, which is charged with the duty of keeping it open for signature or resignature indefinitely, and with transmitting certified copies, with invitations to become parties, to all of the States of the world. In performing this function, the Pan American Union may invoke the assistance of any of its members signatory hereto.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the undersigned Plenipotentiaries have signed this agreement on behalf of their respective Governments, and have affixed hereto their seals on the dates appearing opposite their signatures.

Opened for signature by the Pan American Union, in accordance with a resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States, this fifteenth day of July, 1934, at Washington.

THE UNITED STATES PROPOSAL AT MONTEVIDEO

The delegation of the United States submitted to the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo a proposal which contained the bases of an international agreement, open to the participation of all the States of the world, whereby each party agrees not to invoke the most-favored-nation clause in bilateral treaties entered into with States which are parties to multilateral treaties, in order to obtain the advantages accorded to the signatories of the multilateral treaties, without assuming the corresponding obligations.

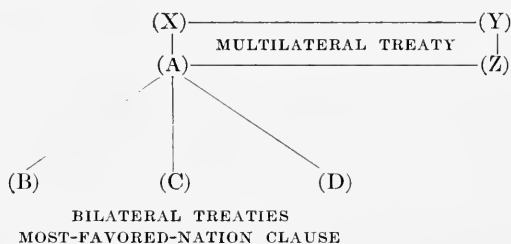
The agreement submitted to the Conference at Montevideo has in view the following situation in international relations: State (A)

concludes with other States (X), (Y), and (Z), a multilateral treaty which tends to establish between them a liberal policy in their economic relations, but State (A) also has with other States (B), (C), and (D), bilateral treaties which provide for most-favored-nation treatment.

Through the automatic operation of the most-favored-nation clause, States (B), (C), and (D), which are not parties to the multilateral treaty, may invoke the most-favored-nation clause in their bilateral treaties in order to obtain from (A) the same advantages which (A) concedes to the other signatories to the multilateral treaty in exchange for the concessions which (A) receives from them.

In the manner above described, States which have a bilateral treaty with the most-favored-nation clause may invoke this clause to enjoy all the advantages which the signatories of a multilateral treaty grant to their co-signatories, without assuming any of the obligations of the multilateral treaty.

The situation envisaged by the agreement proposed at the Montevideo Conference may be graphically explained as follows:



By virtue of the multilateral treaty, (A) concedes to (X), (Y), and (Z) certain advantages, and automatically receives from (X), (Y), and (Z) identic concessions. (B), (C), and (D), which are not parties to the multilateral treaty, do not assume the obligation of giving to (A) the same concessions, but by invoking the most-favored-nation clause in their bilateral treaties with (A), may claim the advantages which (A) concedes to (X), (Y), and (Z).

These are the situations which are envisaged by the agreement submitted to the Montevideo Conference, and which it is the purpose of this agreement to obviate in the future.

PURPOSES OF THE AGREEMENT

The following data explain in detail the purposes of each article of this agreement:

Article I stipulates that the parties shall not invoke *inter se* the most-favored-nation clause to obtain from one of the parties to the agreement the advantages which the latter concedes to its co-signatories in a multilateral treaty.

This article refers to the following multilateral treaties:

(a) Those which may be of general interest and applicability to all or to the greater part of the nations of the world;

(b) Those which, because of the number of States, their economic importance, and the applicable area, embrace a considerable portion of the total international commerce;

(c) Those which have for their object the liberalization and promotion of commercial intercourse; and

(d) Those which are open to the signature or adherence of other States. In the case of a multilateral treaty closed to the adherence of some countries, the Montevideo agreement will not apply, and the countries to which it is closed may claim the advantages of that treaty by invoking the most-favored-nation clause in bilateral agreements existing between them and signatories to it.

Article II permits a State that is not a signatory to a multilateral treaty provided for in article I to claim through the operation of the most-favored-nation clause in a bilateral treaty entered into with one of the parties to the multilateral treaty, the advantages which are accorded to the signatories of the multilateral treaty, insofar as the State invoking the most-favored-nation clause accords in fact to the State which is party to the multilateral treaty, the same benefits which the latter receives from its co-signatories by virtue of the multilateral treaty.

This article does not contemplate a juridical relationship between the signatories of a bilateral treaty and the signatories of a multilateral treaty, but rather a *de facto* situation in which the signatories of a bilateral treaty who invoke the most-favored-nation clause find themselves in relation to the provisions of the multilateral treaty. This interpretation may be clarified by the same example as illustrated in the diagram above: State (A) is a signatory, along with (X), (Y), and (Z), to a multilateral treaty in which the parties have agreed not to establish between themselves certain commercial restrictions. States (B), (C), and (D) are not signatories to the multilateral treaty, but each one has with (A) a bilateral treaty containing the unconditional most-favored-nation clause. Neither (B), (C), nor (D) have established the commercial restrictions which the multilateral treaty prohibits. Consequently they are in a *de facto* position that conforms with the provisions of the multilateral treaty. Therefore, under this article, (B), (C), and (D), or any one of them, without being parties to the multilateral treaty, may take advantage of the *de facto* situation in which they find themselves in relation to the multilateral treaty by claiming from (A), under the terms of the most-favored-nation clause, the benefits which (A) concedes to its co-signatories to the multilateral treaty.

In the light of this interpretation it can be clearly seen: (1) That (B), (C), and (D) remain without any juridical relationship to the multilateral treaty and its signatories; and (2) that if (B), (C), and (D) are in a *de facto* position conforming to the provisions of the multilateral treaty, they or any one of them may invoke the most-favored-nation clause in the bilateral treaties which they have with (A), and consequently obtain from (A) the advantages conferred upon (A) by virtue of the multilateral treaty.

To sum up, when (B), (C), and/or (D) invoke with respect to (A) the operation of the most-favored-nation clause, the basis of their right is found in the bilateral treaties existing between (B), (C), and (D) and (A), and the *de facto* situation in which (B), (C), and (D) find themselves, and which permits them to offer to (A) the benefits which (A) extends to its co-signatories to the multilateral treaty. States (B), (C), and (D) have no connection with the multilateral treaty, and no relation with its signatories.

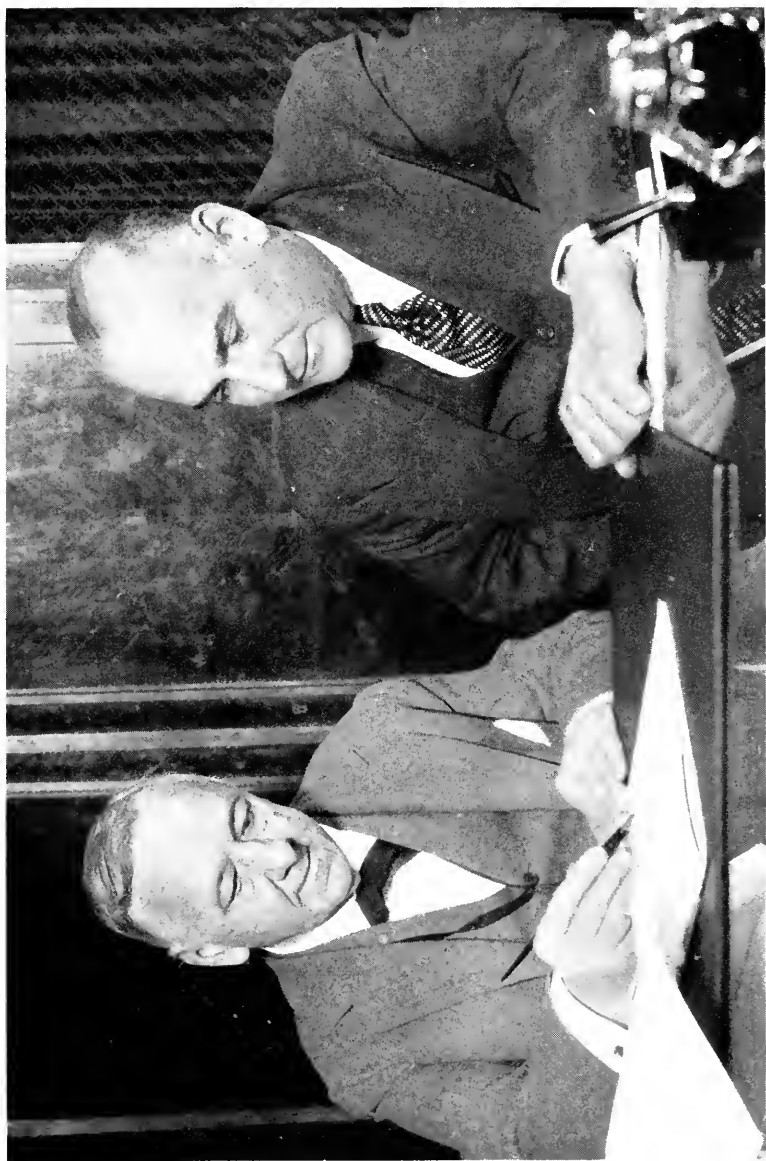
Article III contains three stipulations: (1) It opens the agreement to the signature of all states and makes it operative in respect of each from the date of its signature; (2) it declares that the agreement is of indefinite duration, but recognizes the right of the parties to denounce it, the denunciation to be effective 3 months after notification to the Pan American Union; and (3) it takes into consideration the fact that in some states the governments may by virtue of the constitutional powers of the executive enter into agreements that may be binding immediately upon signature, while in others the constitutional procedure requires that for an international agreement to become effective, it is necessary first to observe the formalities of legislative approval and ratification. Accordingly, the second paragraph of this article provides that states may sign the agreement *ad referendum*.

Article IV contains general provisions relative to the deposit and opening of the instrument to the signature of all countries and does not require analysis or comment.



THE SIGNING OF CLAIMS
AGREEMENTS BY MEX-
ICO AND THE UNITED
STATES.

The American Ambassador to Mexico, Hon. Josephus Daniels, and the Mexican Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. J. M. Puig Casauranc, signed on April 24, 1934, a Special Claims Convention and a General Claims Protocol intended to expedite the disposition of claims pending between the two governments.



Josephus Daniels

Dr. J. M. Puig Casauranc.

[Signature]

ACROSS HAITI FROM PORT AU PRINCE TO CAP HAITIEN

By JULIUS MORITZEN

Author of "The Peace Movement of America", "Georg Brandes in Life and Letters", etc.

IT IS a familiar paradox that countries lying close at hand are frequently almost unknown to those acquainted with lands far away. Haiti is a striking example of this. The island, which is divided between the Republic of Haiti and the Dominican Republic, has Puerto Rico as its neighbor to the east and Jamaica to the west; and yet, while these need no introduction to travelers bent on either business or pleasure, it is only quite recently that attention has been directed to Haiti, where unequaled tropical sights await the visitor. Since its neighbors in the Caribbean have long been focal points for voyagers, the wonder is that the island lying midway in that matchless sea has been so largely a *terra incognita*.

The more reason, therefore, that if considering a trip of any extent whatever, you will make no mistake in choosing Haiti as your destination; and after your arrival at Port au Prince, the capital of the Republic, you will find the overland tour from south to north a revelation in travel experience.

President Roosevelt's recent stop at Cap Haitien on his historic voyage through the Panama Canal to Hawaii, and President Sténio Vincent's earlier visit to Washington for personal conference with him, are incidents important in fostering fraternal good will between the two countries.

As you arrive in Port au Prince on a ship of the Colombian or Panama Line, sailing weekly from New York, you realize that everything has been made ready there for a reception that will leave nothing to be desired. And so, after looking over the Presidential Palace, whose immaculate white exterior rests against a background of perennial green; after viewing the several monuments telling of the heroic struggles of the Republic for independence; after watching the bustling life of the market places, with picturesque natives displaying the bounty of Haitian soil, you may wish either to spend more time in Port au Prince itself—for which purpose you will find good hotel accommodations at the Hotel Sans Souci, the largest and most modern of the caravansaries—or to start immediately on your overland trip to Cap Haitien. In the latter case, the Haitian Tourist Society is prepared to give you every attention.

Let us assume, then, that either at once or later you will go on that trip to Cap Haitien. Your car, with a skilled Haitian at the wheel, will take you over excellent roads which, following the coral coast for miles, with the sea and fishing fleet on the one hand and towering mountains on the other, pass through interesting lowlands with fields of sugarcane, banana plantations, and quaint villages where friendly greetings of the natives meet you.

Then, up winding roads, your car keeps climbing among tremendous canyons until amid the clouds, looking down on scenes of unequaled grandeur, you discover that Haiti is a land of mountains and valleys. In a former number of the *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union¹,



THE NATIONAL PALACE, PORT AU PRINCE.

Either against the blackness of the night or the verdure of the surrounding hills, the handsome National Palace always stands out in bold relief.

M. Luc Dorsinville, founder and principal of the Guy Joseph-Bonnet Institute in Port au Prince, has given a valuable and charming description of the plains of Haiti, of which there are eight of more than 25,000 acres each. The largest of these is the Central Plain, containing 544,000 acres; it runs from east to west between the Massif du Nord and the Montagnes Noires, and from north to southeast between St. Raphael and Belladère.

Among the more important cities through which you will pass north of Port au Prince are Saint Marc and Gonaïves, on a spacious bay at the mouth of the two rivers, the Estère and the Artibonite. Since both are outlets for the region drained by these streams, they are

¹ August, 1933. See also "The Rivers and Lakes of Haiti", by the same author, in the *BULLETIN* for March 1932—EDITOR.

centers for an important coffee, cotton, and logwood trade, Gonaïves having the added distinction that here the independence of Haiti was declared on January 1, 1804.

While viewing the ever-changing scenic effects as your car speeds on, you will probably try to recall what you know of the history of Haiti. Your driver and guide, who speaks English in addition to French, the native language of the Republic, may volunteer certain additional information of interest. It is not at all improbable that the man at the wheel is a descendant of one of the outstanding figures who made history for Haiti from the time of the early French occupation until the establishment of the Republic. Certainly, as he tells you of the great events of the past you cannot fail to catch some of the enthusiasm with which he presents his facts. Especially as the car nears Cap Haitien, where the Palace of Sans Souci and the Citadel will shortly come into view, to have this native Haitian describe the events making up the tradition to which he has been born and bred gives them much more reality.

You probably know that Haiti—which, in the language of the aborigines, meant “mountainous land”—was discovered by Columbus on December 6, 1492, while on his first voyage of adventure, the Spaniards taking possession of the whole island. The history of the following centuries is not always to the credit of the powers who successively became its overlords. As you pass through Gonaïves, your guide will proudly inform you that on January 1, 1804, Jean Jacques Dessalines, commander-in-chief of the revolutionary armies, proclaimed the independence of the former French colony on the island then called Saint Domingue. Thereafter it was again known by the old Indian name of Haiti.

Now, letting the evidence of some of the stirring events during the rule of King Henri Christophe speak for itself, through the interpretation put upon it by your companion on your overland journey, before coming in sight of the ruins of the Palace of Sans Souci and the Citadel you will be told the following:

“Three individuals have set their indelible imprint on Haitian history—Toussaint L'Ouverture, Jean Jacques Dessalines, and Henri Christophe. We shall soon glimpse a glorious memento of the latter's reign, as the Citadel la Ferrière will be visible some time before we reach Cap Haitien proper.

“The Citadel is built on a mountain top at an elevation of 2,500 feet above sea level. It was erected both to ward off expected attacks from the sea by foreign men-of-war, and as a protection against trouble at home. As a matter of fact, the Citadel was first conceived by Dessalines, who worked for fifteen years on its construction; Christophe had been king for seven years before he carried on the work begun by his predecessor.”

Your Haitian friend may here pause, to let the information so far volunteered sink in, while he keeps a steady eye on the twists and turns of the road. If you did not already know what he has been telling you about the historical events leading up to King Christophe's colorful reign in the north of Haiti, he has given you sufficient indication of the drama involved in the building of the Citadel.

If it happens to be a clear day, all at once your guide will point to the distant horizon where the huge mass of a stone building crowns the summit of a mountain.



THE CITADEL OF LA FERRIÈRE.

Surmounting a 2,500-foot mountain peak, this stronghold, whose construction was begun by Dessalines and completed by Christophe, causes the visitor to marvel at the stupendous undertaking.

"That's the Citadel," the man exclaims with some pride in his voice. "Shortly we shall be at Cap Haitien. We shall still have time to visit Sans Souci this afternoon. It is best to leave the Citadel for tomorrow morning. It is quite a climb up the mountain side and a good night's rest will fit you for the ride on horseback to the top."

If you have made the journey from Port au Prince without undue delay, you will find that it has taken only about eight hours. So, after enjoying the hospitality of one of the hotels in Cap Haitien, with an introduction to the famous coffee that is the beverage served also in famous Parisian restaurants as the drink par excellence, your next move is the trip to the village of Milot. The Sans Souci ruins,

although their splendor is faded, still retain enough to set your imagination to work speculating on what the palace must have been like when King Christophe held court here, surrounded by every regal appurtenance.

At one extremity of the palace stands the restored chapel, consecrated not long ago with special ceremonies in which President Vincent and his official family took part, the occasion being a gala day in Milot. It was in this chapel that King Christophe worshipped when peace in the island permitted him to leave his stronghold higher up the mountain.

Certain French documents still in existence give a detailed description of Sans Souci in its full glory. The description by John W. Vandercook,² however, is excellent: "When completed Sans Souci was the finest mansion in the New World. It rose four stories above the highest terrace and was built of bricks plastered over with yellow stucco. The roof was of red tile. A mountain stream was conducted under the floors of the great halls of state on the main floor to keep them cool, and the water then ran out from the keystone of a marble arch, dropped twenty feet over a bright blue wall, and rippled away through channels painted a rich Pompeian red."

After ascending what remains of the grand stairway, where square sentry boxes still recall the vigil of guards of long ago, you come, to quote Mr. Vandercook again, upon "an exceptionally large open terrace at the western end of the palace. There were banquet halls, an audience chamber, the private rooms of the King, the Queen, the young Prince Royal, and Christophe's two daughters, the Princesses Améthiste and Athénaire." The formal garden in the rear of the palace was said to have rivaled the finest in the Old World and excelled anything of the kind in the New. You have but to close your eyes as you seat yourself on a broken pillar, and in imagination the place becomes filled with all that Haitian splendor which in the time of King Christophe lent atmosphere to the scene.

Hours upon hours could be spent at Sans Souci, and still you would miss something of its past glory because of the destruction of many details that entered into the whole scheme. But you will have seen enough to give you a fair idea of what it must have been like. And so you return to Cap Haitien, on the way paying attention to the remains of the great plantations which in their day made Haiti, with its rich yield of sugar cane, the greatest colony of France. Your guide will tell you much about that period in Haitian history.

Recent developments in the Republic point to an agricultural renaissance; banana cultivation is expected to yield as rich a return of its kind as sugar has in the past, although the latter is still one of the chief sources of revenue for the country. Coffee continues to be

² "Black Majesty", by John W. Vandercook. Harper & Brothers, New York and London, 1928.



Photograph by Department of Public Works, Haiti.

SANS SOUFI.

At the village of Milot stands the ruined palace of Christophe, the former slave, who had himself proclaimed King Henri I and who ruled over northern Haiti from 1811 to 1820. Upper: the royal palace as it is thought to have appeared during the reign of Christophe. Lower: The ruins today.

an important export article. The raising of sisal has also become a paying industry on the island. It goes without saying that the finest fruits ever produced in the tropics can be found in Haiti; they are of a quality to suit the most exacting palate. The oranges of the north, for instance, have not their superior in any other part of the Caribbean archipelago. As for the logwood industry, the forests have an almost inexhaustible supply of this product, so essential to the dyeing industry.

But after all, neither business nor economics has a place in your schedule for this overland trip, so after a good night's rest, you are up early for what you may confidently expect to be the climax of your adventure. You again cover the distance between Cap Haitien and Milot, where a gendarme awaits you with horses that for the next two hours will carry you up the mountain, along almost invisible paths which, to the trained sense and sure-footedness of the animals, are all that is needed for the ascent.

Up and up you go, and as you rise higher and higher the deep chasms on either side of the narrow path reveal what a stupendous effort it must have been in the first place to cut a trail to the Citadel. The original purpose was, of course, to make the top as inaccessible as possible to those not wanted there; the side of the mountain facing the sea was fully protected by the huge cannon that you will find, to your astonishment, still in place at many points behind the walls. So as you finally finish the ascent and view the structure looming directly above your head, your imagination is staggered at the thought of human labor ever being able to produce so formidable a structure with the primitive engineering means then at hand. It may well be believed that it took thousands of men to complete the Citadel. Many of the 365 huge bronze cannons that thrust their muzzles threateningly toward sea and land so long ago still remain, and the great stacks of cannon balls nearby are mute testimonies to their grim purpose. The walls built on that steeply sloping mountain measure in some places from 80 to 100 feet in height and are of immense thickness.

As you continue your exploration of the Citadel, walking the ramparts with a view in every direction and delving into the subterranean chambers with their forbidding aspects indicative of a military occupation that meant discipline of the most exacting kind, you finally come to the tomb of King Christophe in the open inner court. Then it is brought home to you that here is a phase of New World history that belongs to more than Haiti alone, since France and her colonial plan were at that time closely associated with the events that occurred here. The French language, however, is not the only thing that still unites Haiti with the country across the sea. Trade



Courtesy of Julius Moritzen.

NATIVE INDUSTRIES OF HAITI.

Haiti is essentially an agricultural country, and its chief products—coffee, cotton, and sugar—are closely followed in importance by sisal and logwood. Upper: Drying operation on a sisal plantation. Within the past five years the exportation of the fiber has increased nearly a hundredfold. Lower: A float of logwood. The forests of Haiti seem to possess an inexhaustible supply of this wood, much used in the manufacture of dyes.

relations between the two have always been close, and the fact that the young men of Haiti are in many instances sent to France for their further education reveals an intimacy that today makes bygones be bygones in so far as historic differences are concerned.

One of the impressions gathered from this single experience of motoring across Haiti from south to north and once more back to Port au Prince is that in many other parts of Haiti besides the capital things of absorbing interests to the traveler may be found. An interesting way in which to see all the towns along the coast is to take a ship from New York touching at every port along the sea route.

Should you prefer a cruise on one of the steamers whose round trip includes Port au Prince, Kingston, Cristobal, and Colombian ports, your stay in the capital of Haiti will still be long enough to allow you to take the brief inland excursion to Kenskoff, 4,500 feet above sea level.

From this mountain resort, only 15 miles southeast of Port au Prince, you are afforded an incomparable view of land, sea, and sky, all blending into a picture that would rejoice the heart of an artist. The scenery en route is of such a nature that there are no words to describe the beauty of the panorama as it unwinds: mountains and valleys, native villages, and pretentious estates, Haitian life in all its colorfulness. Natives on donkeys share with you the fine macadamized road. You return to your ship ready to continue the voyage, conscious that the trip into the mountain was an experience well worth traveling many miles to enjoy.

No one will be disappointed, however, in having selected Haiti as a new travel goal, since Port au Prince is only four days away from New York. When it is added that ship accommodations are today equal to the best found on transatlantic liners, it will be realized that a visit to Haiti looms as a new experience, where all things combine to make such a trip an inspiration.



RADIO IN LATIN AMERICA¹

By VICTOR H. SUTRO

(Part II)

LATIN AMERICAN RADIO PROGRAMS

THE extreme fondness of the Argentine public for dance music—fox-trots, and above all tangos—in its radio programs has often been noted, and certain figures published last autumn by the Argentine Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs seem to bear out this observation. These figures show that for 10 Buenos Aires radio stations musical programs occupied nearly 60 percent of the broadcasting time; and of this 60 percent, half was devoted to dance music alone, and about one-fifth more to other forms of light music. This compares with 17 percent of total broadcasting time given over to classical music; 9 percent to theatrical programs; 2 percent to cultural broadcasts; 4.5 percent to news; 1.5 percent to sports; and 10 percent to advertising. These are, of course, averages. Some Buenos Aires stations give no sports broadcasts, while others give 5 or 6 percent of their time to sports. Last year LS4, Radio Porteña, broadcast commentaries on all the sports carried on in Argentina. LR8, Cine París, gives nearly a third of its time to theatrical programs; and LS9, La Voz del Aire, gives over one-sixth of its time to this form of entertainment.

One of the defects of broadcasts in Argentina, according to the papers of that country, is the excess of station propaganda, very annoying to the immense majority of radio listeners. These extended announcements are due to the competition between stations, of which there are many in the country. The Government should, it is thought, impose suitable standards to correct this situation. One writer states that the majority of Argentines like to hear programs of Argentine music, lectures, dramas, and comedies, decent songs, and especially native folk songs. This will become increasingly true as the use of the radio in the home becomes less of a novelty and more rational and moderate as time goes on. The Argentine system is modeled on the American, in which the programs are paid for by the advertising broadcast. In spite of the abuses to which it is subject, Argentine broadcasting has progressed enormously. The weak and poor apparatus of a few years ago has been replaced by more powerful and more perfect equipment, although perhaps not to so great an extent

¹ Part I, which was published last month, discussed stations in Latin America, with special reference to those heard in the United States, and amateur broadcasting.

as ought to be the case at the present time; and the programs of many stations, while not perfect, are very good. The artists are paid more than the public realizes.

Reproduced below is a representative program broadcast early this year over LR6, Radio La Nación, showing the amount of time devoted to the various items:

- 9 a.m.—Gymnasium classes by Dr. Mendría.
- 9:30—Selection of phonograph records of classical and Argentine music.
- 10:30—Carlos Romeu, comedian.
- 11:00—News bulletin of the newspaper *La Nación*.
- 11:30—A Spanish play.
- 12:15 p.m.—Salerno's Argentine orchestra, with the singer Florestán.
- 12:30—Songs by Eda Lys, with piano accompaniment.
- 1—Songs by Fanny Salmy, with piano accompaniment.
- 1:15—Salerno's Argentine orchestra, with the singer Florestán.
- 3:00 to 5:00—Station silent.
- 5:00—Marcucci's Argentine orchestra.
- 5:30—Comic trio.
- 5:45—Singer Eva Lauri, accompanied by her guitarists.
- 6:00—Cocktail hour, with comedian Romeu.
- 6:45—Singer Eva Lauri, with guitar accompaniment.
- 7:00—Selected commentaries under the direction of Señorita Kelly. Classical symphony orchestra directed by Maestro Jacobo Ficher, with romanzas sung by the soprano María Capdevila.
- 7:30—English lessons by Mr. Waterhouse.
- 7:45—Classical symphony orchestra directed by Maestro Jacobo Ficher.
- 8:45—Selection of phonograph records of classical and Argentine music.
- 9:00—Argentine guitar quartet.
- 9:15—Edgardo Donato's Argentine orchestra with the singer F. Gutiérrez.
- 9:30—Songs sung by Rosario Granados, with piano accompaniment.
- 9:45—Argentine guitar quartet.
- 10:00—Classical symphony orchestra, directed by Maestro Jacobo Ficher, with romanzas sung by the soprano Talentón.
- 10:30—Selection of phonograph records of classical and Argentine music.
- 11:30—End of the broadcast.

Some programs, such as those of the National Petroleum Bureau over LS1, are composed to a very large extent of the music of the great classical composers. Both of the stations mentioned above are in Buenos Aires.

On Buenos Aires radio programs of late 1933, we find Tania who, although a native of Valencia, Spain, has become the great artist of Argentine songs; and Dora Davis, a singer of folk songs, who is gifted with expressiveness and vocal ability and a great respect for the native tradition. In this group may be mentioned Carlos Gardel, singing folk songs in a rich voice and with a truly Argentine sentiment; Julio de Caro, a violinist playing melodies of the pampas with his orchestra; and Fernando Ochoa, who tells stories expressing the sentiment, the sorrow, and the joy of the gauchos; also Antonio Molina, a singer of the folk songs of Northern Argentina and the Paraguayan

border, which he himself has collected and harmonized; Martínez Cardozo, who excels in songs in Guaraní, with his Paraguayan repertoire; Gina Cruz, who sings Brazilian songs accompanied by two guitarists; Inés de León, singing Chilean songs; Juan Ballester, singing Central American songs; and the Borodin Quartet, singers of Russian popular songs, the sentiments of which range from the liveliest joy to the deepest bitterness. Zita Nelson, a brilliant young soprano, sings in nine languages, and is noted for her refinement in tonal shading and her impeccable diction. She sings the most difficult arias as well as simple songs.



THE MINISTRY OF POSTS AND TELEGRAPHS, ARGENTINA.

Under the control and regulation of this department broadcasting has increased rapidly. Practices are modeled to some extent on the system of the United States.

The three Falcón sisters represent the best type of tango-singer; and we may mention Betty Blain as a pianist playing fox-trots, which are very popular in Argentina. Over Radio Prieto, a group of Cuban negroes gave a program of songs and instrumental pieces of Cuba and Central America, featuring rumbas, *pregones*, *guajiros*, *danzones*, and fox-trots. Also noted on Buenos Aires programs were classical string quartets, concert pianists, 'cellists, plays, American jazz orchestras, bridge lessons, discussions of problems in chess, and political speeches. Numbers sung in English are interspersed in the general programs of some of the broadcasting stations.

Turning now to the individual radio stations in Buenos Aires, we find LR2, Radio Argentina, and LS2, Radio Prieto, noted for the variety and excellence of their daily music programs. Many people eminent in other lines of knowledge have also stood before their microphones. Radio Prieto has installed a new transmitter and has also recently established Radio Prieto of Asunción, Paraguay, with flattering results. LR5, Radio Excelsior, directs its programs to the middle classes and endeavors to unite the greatest number of listeners on the soil of South America. LR8, Radio París, concentrates on the hours from noon to 2:30 p.m. and gives one of the most select and varied programs. It broadcasts from the Cine París Theatre. LR9, Radio Fénix, signed exclusive contracts with a number of Spanish artists for 1934. The latter are presenting programs of the most celebrated modern Spanish authors, which will also be exclusive for Radio Fénix. LR4, Radio Splendid, rebroadcasts weekly from the United States, Paris, and Germany. This station brings to its microphone the most representative artistic values. It gives four symphony concerts a week, directed by the ex-director-general of the Colón Theatre of Buenos Aires, Maestro Juan José Castro, and it has also offered the best Spanish violinist, Manuel Quiroga. A notable hook-up was arranged when the speeches of the President and Vice-President of Argentina, at a banquet given in their honor at the Stock Exchange, were broadcast in the capital and in the interior of the country through Station LR3, Radio Nacional, and the *Cadena Argentina de Broadcasting* at Rosario, Córdoba, and Bahía Blanca. For this hook-up the *Compañía Unión Telefónica* lent its disinterested collaboration, allowing the use of its long-distance lines, so that the radio listeners of the interior might hear the speeches.

Among the radio stations in the Argentine Provinces, we find LT8, Radio Rosario, giving programs of musical, literary, and scientific worth, and at the same time not disregarding popular artistic manifestations. This station broadcast a program in honor of Goethe in 1932, on the centenary of his death. LT3, Radio Rural de Cerealistas, at Rosario, started television broadcasting toward the end of 1932, twice a week for 6 months. At the beginning of March 1934, it was planned to resume the broadcasts. Most of the artists from the capital who tour the interior perform over this station. There is a weekly hour called "the hour for everyone", when talented amateurs may perform over LT3. LU2, Radio Bahía Blanca, has broadcast a contest of such amateurs. By means of the network, it broadcasts anything especially good from the capital, the rest of the country, or the outside world.

Pierre Noizeux, the engineer in charge of the technical services of the *Compañía Transradio Internacional*, states that rebroadcasts of foreign radio programs are very popular in Argentina. So far, the

few foreign rebroadcasts have been made through the C.T.I. Receiving Station at Villa Elisa. This station receives the foreign broadcast by short wave (15 meters by day and 30 meters by night) and sends it by wire to one of the Argentine radio stations for rebroadcast. For example, every Saturday a New York broadcast is retransmitted for Radio Splendid of Buenos Aires. Similarly, on December 24, 1933, a broadcast was received from the Convent of Montserrat near Barcelona, Spain. This went from Montserrat to Madrid, from Madrid by directed wave to Villa Elisa, and from there by wire to Radio Prieto in Buenos Aires.

To avoid the inconvenience of "fading", the company uses simultaneously three receivers, which have their antennae separated by distances of 1,000 feet. This is effective, since the phenomenon of "fading" may be present in one place, but not at another place only 325 or 650 feet distant. To avoid static, the company employs the system of directed waves, which may be compared to the headlights of an automobile, which illuminate only a narrow strip of the road. The directed wave thus avoids storms which may exist in zones away from the direct line to the receiving station.

The transmission of photographs by radio is paralyzed for the present, owing to the fact that the only colors that can be transmitted more or less economically are the blacks and the whites. For example, when the company transmitted for the London *Daily Mirror* a photograph of the inauguration of the Rural Exposition by the Prince of Wales and Lieutenant-General Uriburu on March 15, 1931, the photographs contained 17 kinds of grays, took 5 hours to send, and cost the London daily 15,000 Argentine pesos.

Argentine publications having to do with radio are the following: *Sintonía*, *Antena*, *Comoedia*, *Revista Telegráfica*, *Ciencia Popular*, *RCA*, *Radio Revista*, and *Radio Popular*. The popular weekly *Caras y Caretas* also devotes an interesting section to radio.

Turning now to the radio programs of other Latin American countries, we note that only Chile, Cuba, Mexico, and Uruguay have "free" broadcasts, with revenue entirely dependent on advertising, as in the United States. The other countries have either eliminated all advertising and pay the cost of broadcasting by licensing receiving sets or taxing listeners, or they have devised a system which divides the burden between the listener and the advertiser.

In Bolivia, the programs of Radio Illimani of La Paz comprise music, generally jazz, the rendition of songs by local talent, comic sketches, some home educational work, national propaganda, news items, and advertising. We find the Bolivian and Paraguayan radio stations much occupied with the struggle for control of the Gran Chaco, with speeches on the Bolivian view of the matter being made over Radio Illimani, and with President Eusebio Ayala of Paraguay

inaugurating Station ZP9 of Asunción with an address outlining Paraguay's case against Bolivia in the conflict. In April, at the opening of the Paraguayan Congress, President Ayala read a long message given over almost entirely to the Chaco situation. This message was broadcast to the whole nation.

The Brazilian programs are notable for the large amount of time devoted to music, much of which is in the form of phonograph records. Chilean programs, such as those of Radio El Mercurio of Santiago, are almost entirely musical. Radio Las Últimas Noticias found its daily Spanish hour a great success. This gave the news coming each day from Spain, and music typically Spanish, such as de Falla's *El Amor Brujo*. It was planned to expand the scope of the hour by adding short interviews with members of the Spanish colony and some lectures on literary and social subjects. A British Radio Hour was being broadcast last autumn over Radio Wallace of Valparaíso. This program was on the air from 10 to 10:45 in the evening and consisted of a long news bulletin and some songs and piano numbers, but very little dance music, since the other local programs had by far the larger part of their time taken up by dance music. The British Radio Hour was started under the auspices of the British Society, with the support of Messrs. Duncan, Fox & Co. and certain anonymous subscribers, who jointly undertook to finance it for three months. A British Radio Club was to be organized, from the dues to which the British Radio Hour was to be financed after the first three subsidized months were over at the end of last November. The organization, announcing, etc., was the work of volunteers.

Many United States stations are heard in Cuba, and our fine orchestral and vocal concerts seem to be of special interest. Eddie Cantor is also popular. Considerable variety is to be found in the programs of Cuban stations. Station CMCW of Habana has broadcast Benavente's beautiful comedy *La Otra Honra*, and a comedy of the Quintero brothers, *Mi Hermano y Yo*. Station CMC has offered over the *Cadena Nacional* a program given by the band of the General Staff of the Army, with various artists singing operatic numbers and songs. One of the Habana stations last year presented an advance release of the Spanish version of an American movie, in the form of a musical sketch, interpreted by a group of Cuban artists who sang various songs from the talkie. Station CMK gives current events, concert numbers, movie criticisms, comic contests, and gossip about fashions in its *La Hora Única*. This station has also broadcast a program in honor of the Department of Communications, consisting of speeches by officials of the department interspersed with a few songs. Station CMCG in its "Cultural Hour" announces new books received by the Casa Cervantes; while Station CMBS in its "Political Hour" gives political, social, and economic speeches every Sunday

morning. Station CMBZ, El Clamor, offers news of general interest in art, literature, science, politics, theatres, movies, etc. Station CMAF of Miramar broadcasts an hour of good humor six times a week.

In the Dominican Republic, over Station HIX of Santo Domingo, Señora Abigaíl Mejía de Fernández, of the *Acción Feminista Dominicana*, made a speech to the women of Haiti this spring, urging them to unite to secure women's rights, just as three years ago the women of the Dominican Republic united for the same purpose. The Domin-

BUILDING OF THE CUBAN TELEPHONE COMPANY, HABANA.

The studios and offices of Station CMC, the key station of the Cadena Nacional Cubana de Radio, are located in this edifice.



ican women have already secured the sympathy and support of President Trujillo and have been accorded a "trial vote", in preparation for the granting to them of permanent voting rights. Last Christmas Eve, the sound of the bells of the Basilica of Bethlehem, broadcast through Port Said and rebroadcast from London, was heard in Santo Domingo.

In Ecuador, the radio has not yet been used as an instrument of education and general culture, but it is beginning to be used for the

broadcasting of music and for advertising. Station HC2RL, Quinta Piedad, of Guayaquil, an amateur station, broadcast *Pagliacci* last winter. The programs of Station HCJB, La Voz de los Andes, of Quito, seem to consist largely of the offerings of advertisers, such as Studebaker, General Motors, Philco, etc. This station also gives talks on health and hygiene, and bedtime stories for children.

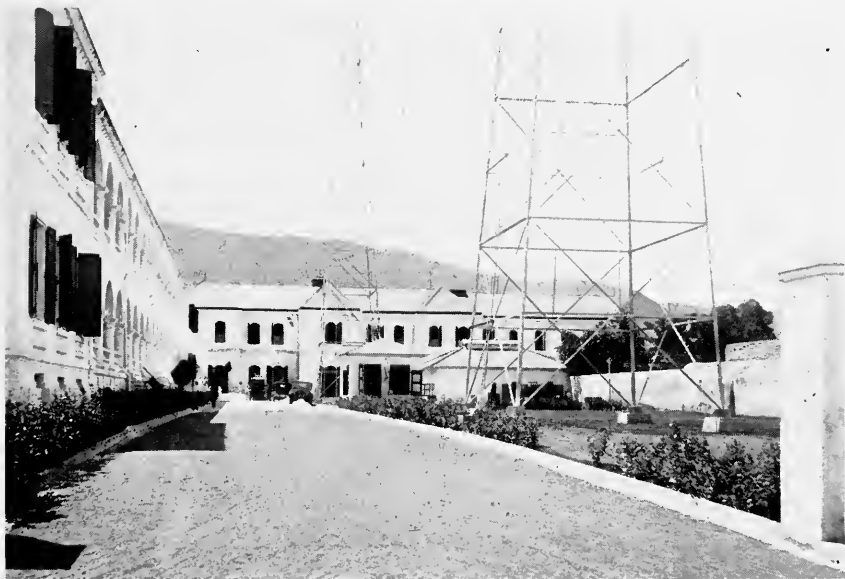
Both the Guatemala City stations broadcast music of the great classic composers played by Guatemalan orchestras—trios, quartets, sextets, full orchestras, and bands—vocal concerts, instrumental soloists, and marimba concerts. Advertising is introduced from time to time throughout the programs. Last winter, Station TGX broadcast a concert given by the musical ensemble of the Central Custom House in honor of General Jorge Ubico, President of Guatemala, on the third anniversary of his inauguration. The program consisted of an opening speech, followed by songs such as *Ojos Negros* and *Estrellita*, and music by Wagner and Mozart, with various Guatemalan airs interspersed among the other numbers. The baseball game between the *Esfinge* Club of Granada, Nicaragua, and the *Palic* Club of Guatemala City was broadcast from the latter city last January.

The programs of the Mexico City stations are very varied. On one day last winter they were presenting talks on the care of one's health, restaurant orchestras, marimba orchestras, children's bedtime stories, tenors singing romantic songs, a singer and guitarist, comic gossip, a discussion of Tampico as a fashionable beach, an Argentine orchestra, a singer and violinist, the news of the day, the Ipana Troubadours, a string trio, and phonograph records of band music. The hour from 10:30 to 11:30 on one program was amusingly devoted to the "Club of the Broom and the Feather Duster." The Program of Cultural Activity of the Police Department on that day consisted of fox-trots and *danzones* by the Police Jazz Band, and music of the coast and of the State of Jalisco by Michoacán musicians. This program also broadcast a talk entitled "Brief Notes on Police Prevention of Crime."

On July 28, 1933, the anniversary of Peru's Independence Day, programs dedicated to that Nation were broadcast by the other South American countries. This gracious action was much appreciated in Peru. Over Station OAX of Lima there was heard last January a conversation between Mr. Edward Tomlinson, correspondent on Latin-American affairs for the Hearst newspapers, and Señor Carlos Velarde Cabello, chief of the transport services of the Panagra (Pan American-Grace Airways). They conversed in English, speaking of interesting aspects of the general situation in Latin America, especially in relation to the last Pan American Conference in Montevideo and the closer ties being developed between the United States

and Hispanic America. Among other things, Mr. Tomlinson said that he thought South America was at the beginning of a brilliant economic future. He concluded by saying that his trip by air from the United States to Montevideo and his return journey to Lima had been very interesting, and he referred to the enormous development which commercial aviation had attained in the whole of America, and in the world, in the past few years.

The Uruguayan radio programs are varied and good, particularly those of the Montevideo stations. CX26, Radio Uruguay of Montevideo, gives excellent programs, offering the public such attractions as Filiberto Hernández, a classical pianist of great interpretative



A HAITIAN RADIO STATION.

At Port au Prince, HHK, operating on a long-wave length, is the first broadcasting station.

sensitiveness and refined technique; the Zangano Trio, executing classical programs; Fanny Vidal, an excellent soprano; Andrés Picun and José Buti, singers of folksongs; a native troupe, *Mientras corre el cimarrón*; and the tenor Lloret Castells, in addition to a collection of 3,000 selected phonograph records. CX6, the Estación Oficial de Difusión Radioeléctrica (SODRE), has broadcast concerts of the Municipal Band, and special programs of phonograph records giving piano interpretations of Bach, popular and classical French works, Beethoven's Ninth Symphony, and other music. This station has also broadcast Montevideo football games. In celebration of the National Independence Day in August of last year, CX6 broadcast the commemorative exercises organized by the *Asociación Patriótica*

del Uruguay at the Plaza Independencia, a transmission of the *Escuela del Aire* (the School of the Air) from its own studio, and the opening session of the National Constituent Assembly at the Legislative Palace.

Station CX38, La Broadcasting Católica, offers the following to its listeners: Doctrinal matters; music and literature; theatrical criticism; social notes; general information; discussion of politics, fashions, agriculture, and sports or physical culture; and phonograph records. The important Uruguayan radio hour, *Tinta China Etérea*, celebrated its first anniversary in April of last year. Several brief addresses were read, followed by the playing of some magnificent pieces of classical music on the piano and the reading of a poem written by the Uruguayan poet Lerena Acevedo. The celebration was varied by the reading of congratulatory messages from important people in Uruguayan social, political, and intellectual life, beginning with the President, Dr. Gabriel Terra. Station CX16 broadcasts from a night-club, between 11 p.m. and 3 a.m., dance music played by a native Uruguayan and a jazz orchestra.

In Venezuela, the programs of Stations YV1BC, Broadcasting Caracas, and YV3BC, Radiodifusora Venezuela of Caracas, seem to be varied. The former broadcasts a considerable amount of dance music and the results of the lottery, among other things; the latter broadcast Verdi's *Rigoletto* a few months ago. Both had Pan American Day programs this year.

It is hoped that from the selections here given some idea may be gained of the types of program to be found in the radio presentations of the various Latin American countries. The selections are not intended to be exhaustive, and there are undoubtedly many other interesting features of these programs which might be taken up. They are merely chosen to give a cross-section of what one might hear over the radio in an average program in Latin America.

GOVERNMENTAL REGULATION OF RADIO

The Latin American Governments have taken steps to regulate and improve commercial broadcasting in various ways. In Argentina, radio transmission is under the control of the *Dirección General de Correos y Telégrafos*, which makes concessions of stations by means of bids at auction and competitions by those interested, thus facilitating the selection of those who offer the best possibilities for a service of positive merit culturally and artistically. The country has been divided into distinct zones, and on this basis studies have been carried out aiming at the distribution of radio stations throughout all of Argentina.

In order to do away with the interference between Argentine radio stations and those of neighboring countries because of the instability

of their respective frequencies, the Argentine radio administration invited similar authorities of the bordering countries to a meeting, with the object of making a series of reciprocal conventions which would permit the normal future development of broadcasting. Both the Argentine and Uruguayan Governments decreed that by the early part of 1934 all broadcasting stations in the two countries should be equipped with crystal controls kept at a constant temperature, and that the circuits should be so designed that the frequency emitted by the oscillator could not be affected by the succeeding steps of the broadcasting process.



THE STADIUM IN MONTEVIDEO.

Running accounts of football games played in the huge stadium opened during the centennial celebration in 1931 have been popular on Uruguayan radio programs.

In regard to the programs themselves, the administration is developing a plan of gradual evolution in conformity with the cultural and artistic level reached by the country. With this end in view, nationalist sentiment is fostered in the programs. It is desired to counteract the influence of programs given in foreign languages by Argentine stations, and for this purpose rules governing radio broadcasters have been formulated.

The municipal radio station of Buenos Aires has been granted the privilege, for the rest of this year and as an exception, of broadcasting advertising, provided that it obeys the regulations governing other radio stations. The newspaper *La Nación* opposes this government

competition, save as an exception for a short time. The municipal radio station formerly broadcast only the productions of the Teatro Colón.

Argentina makes certain interesting provisions governing all broadcasting, such as prohibiting any but public-health officials from giving talks on medical subjects; limiting the amount of advertising and of "canned" music, in order to keep up the quality of the programs; and prohibiting descriptions of horse races, which in Argentina occupy a considerable place in public interest.

The *Dirección General de Correos y Telégrafos* forbade the broadcasting of dance music after midnight during Carnival this year, as it was prejudicial to certain musical organizations. In order to avoid confusion, no radio station of any kind in Argentina may announce its programs by the use of sirens, bugles, foghorns, or similar instruments. The sound of a siren is reserved exclusively for the introduction of radiotelephone messages of the capital police.

This use of radio by the police of Buenos Aires is one of the most interesting instances of the connection between the Government and radio in Argentina. It has achieved excellent results in the repression of crime. A transmitter installed at police headquarters communicates to all the police stations the news of the day, and when any violence is reported it immediately notifies the police captains, who despatch armed personnel in patrol-cars to apprehend the criminals. Besides this, three times each day, Radio Splendid broadcasts an extensive bulletin in which publicity is given to news of public interest, such as kidnappings, thefts, orders to seize criminals, disappearances of persons, and practical advice about preventing the possible activity of criminals. A service of radio patrol-cars is to be established this year in the city of São Paulo, Brazil, showing that the use of the radio in police work is spreading in Latin America.

For some time the *Revista Telegráfica* in Argentina has been carrying on a campaign against *ruidos parásitos*—electric currents interfering with the good reception of radio programs—and a bill has been brought before the *Concejo Deliberante* for the suppression of these currents through the use of filters attached to the machines causing them. This should be easy to accomplish. A similar campaign is being carried on in Peru.

In broadcasts from Cuban and Venezuelan commercial radio stations, artistic and cultural programs must predominate. Commercial advertising may be employed only to a moderate extent (in Cuba 20 percent of the broadcasting time) and in such a manner as not to injure the quality of the programs. Receiving sets in Cuba must be operated only with the volume of sound necessary for clear reception exclusively in the places where the sets are installed, and the volume must

be diminished after 11 p.m., under penalty of a fine. In Venezuela, owners of receiving sets must reduce the volume of sound of the broadcasts to a minimum during working hours and after 10 p.m., under penalty of being denied the use of their radios. In the Dominican Republic all owners of receiving sets are required to pay a tax to the collector of internal revenue. The Government Radio Station in Santo Domingo is now permitted to broadcast advertising, the income from which goes into the national treasury.

In the United States, the Communications Act of 1934 prohibits broadcasting stations in foreign countries from having studios in this country without permission from the Federal Communications Commission. This affects, among others, certain American-owned stations in Mexico, which have Texan studios.

The International Radiotelegraph Conference, held at Madrid in 1932, was attended by representatives of all the American countries except Haiti and Paraguay. The International Telecommunication Convention signed at this conference was supplemented by the General Radio Regulations, the Final Protocol to the General Radio Regulations, and the Additional Radio Regulations. These agreements were signed by all the Latin American nations, with two exceptions: Mexico did not sign the last three and Nicaragua did not sign the Additional Radio Regulations.

The North and Central American Regional Radio Conference, held at Mexico City in the summer of 1933, was attended by delegations from Costa Rica, Cuba, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Canada, and the United States. The conference submitted to the Governments of these countries a series of recommendations for the improvement of their various radio services, especially those of a nonbroadcasting character. The recommendations dealt chiefly with the assignment of frequencies to the different types of service and with the width of communication channels, to the end that interference between the radio stations of the countries participating in the conference might be eliminated.

EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING

Many of the Latin American countries are paying considerable attention to educational broadcasting. About a dozen of them have Government-controlled stations which put on programs of cultural value such as concerts and lectures, and at least six of them broadcast material designed for schools. There is also some broadcasting of an educational nature by privately controlled stations.

Argentina has a variety of educational programs, and the Council on Primary Instruction is studying a project for distributing radio sets to all schools and centers of instruction. In Buenos Aires last

year, Prof. F. Julio Picarel, Inspector General of Schools, spoke over LS1, the Municipal Broadcasting Station, on *The Orientation of Primary Instruction*; and Don Enrique del Ponte, art director of Radio Fénix, spoke from his station on the importance of the radio in the education of children, particularly in music. He maintained that the Government should exercise a much closer supervision over the type of programs broadcast and should prohibit programs injurious to children. He felt that there should be fewer dance numbers and more classical music, in short, that the radio should become a vehicle of culture and an expression of art and good taste.

Last September, the rector (president) of the University of Buenos Aires made a speech over Radio Municipal, under the auspices of the Argentine Scientific Society, on the subject of scientific investigation. He spoke of the good work done by the society in its 61 years of existence and emphasized the importance of fostering in Argentina conditions favorable to the best development of the work of scientists of ability. For this purpose he urged that larger funds, both public and private, should be expended, as the results, even from the strictly utilitarian viewpoint, would amply repay the country. He went on to cite the case of Guillermo Rawson who, at the age of 19, invented an electric telegraph in Buenos Aires in 1840, 6 years before Morse, but who, owing to lack of the necessary technical preparation and a milieu favorable to scientific work, was unable to bring his invention to a practical conclusion.

LV10, Radio de Cuyo of Mendoza, broadcasts talks by technical experts about agriculture and stock-raising, advising its listeners about preventive measures against diseases and pests. As an interesting project from the point of view of instruction, we mention the plan of Patrocinio Díaz, the Argentine singer, to make a regional classification of Argentine songs, for use over the radio, in order to teach the public the differences that exist among those of the various districts.

One of the leading Argentine radio magazines, the *Revista Telegráfica*, has for some time been urging the Government to establish a national broadcasting station, under its exclusive control, for the dissemination of an interesting program of official propaganda, agricultural and industrial instruction, scientific and artistic education, other cultural matters, and news. The cost of a station would not be excessive, and private industry, realizing its value, would probably make use of it eventually. The National Petroleum Bureau and the State Railways, among other divisions of the Government, already spend considerable sums for advertising. The Petroleum Bureau presents excellent musical programs over the city-owned Broadcasting Municipal of Buenos Aires. Both this station and the Official Broadcasting Station of the Province of Buenos Aires broadcast news bulletins and educational lectures by Government officials.

The third annual course in radiotelevision was given last year in Buenos Aires by the *Centro de Televisión*, with meetings three times a week; and on May 30 of that year an exposition of radio and electricity for the home was inaugurated in that city. The *Radio Club Argentino* displayed a museum of radiotelephony where one could observe the successive perfecting of radio apparatus.

In Bolivia the Illimani Radio Station has begun a cultural campaign, which will eventually cover the fields of education; science, literature, and art; industry; hygiene and first aid; and ethics. Only the secondary schools have so far been provided with receiving sets, due to lack of funds.

In Brazil, all radio stations are obliged to reserve a portion of their time for the State for educational purposes. The College of Fine Arts of the University of Chile is planning this year to broadcast three series of symphony concerts, chamber-music concerts, and selected phonograph records, accompanied by illustrative explanations, provided 5,000 radio listeners can be organized into an association at 5 pesos a series to pay the cost of the enterprise. Each series will consist of 6 symphony concerts of the National Symphony Concert Association; 6 of chamber music, with varied programs of soloists and small orchestras; and 12 broadcasts of phonograph records with comments. The broadcasts will be made over the principal Santiago radio stations.

In Costa Rica, it has been recommended that the *Patronatos Escolares* give radio sets to the schools, and this has been done in some cases. When sufficient schools have them, special educational broadcasts will be organized. Cartago has a broadcasting station in which professors take one night each week to broadcast a program of educational value.

Cuba has a "University of the Air", and during the last two summers has conducted a "Summer School of the Air" for the purpose of spreading progressive educational ideas. On September 1 last year, for instance, a correspondence lesson in the course on contemporary civilization was broadcast over Station CMBZ in Habana.

In El Salvador the national broadcasting station is being used as a means for the diffusion of culture in the best possible sense. Lectures on the care of children, on hygiene, and on civic duties are broadcast, also concerts of classic and Salvadorean music, and biographical and commemorative talks, such as the one broadcast on the occasion of the centenary of Goethe's death.

Guatemala's national broadcasting station TGW is developing a comprehensive cultural plan, which includes programs of readings from the great foreign classic authors and from Guatemalan authors, special concerts in homage to the great musical geniuses on their anniversaries, and celebrated national soloists. There are also special

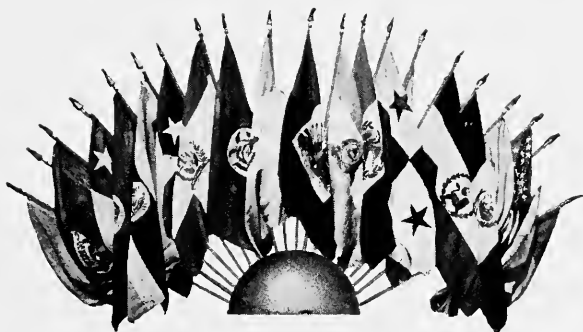
days on which the last word in educational innovations is broadcast, as are lectures on hygiene and topics of general interest. This station broadcasts 6½ hours daily and has equipped the normal, secondary, and some other schools with receiving sets. With the cooperation of Government officials, instruction in the English language is being broadcast twice each week from Station TGW. The instruction is broadcast for an hour during the evening by a citizen of the United States and for an hour at noon by a British subject, both of whom are resident in Guatemala. The periodic lessons are in the local daily newspapers in advance of the radio broadcast so that listeners may follow the broadcast more closely.

In Mexico City a course of eight lectures was recently given over Station XeYZ on Marxism and anti-Marxism; the value which Marxism has as a doctrine from the philosophic, economic, and political points of view was discussed with the various objections. This series was broadcast with the collaboration of the University Extension Department of the Institute of Higher Studies of the "Gabino Barreda" University.

The broadcasting done by the Mexican Department of Education has several interesting features: special programs devoted to farm matters, hygiene, etc., are directed to the rural schools and rural population, which are the object of particular care on the part of the Mexican Government; for urban schools a varied program is provided, including the daily "educational newspaper"; professional courses for teachers are given, including demonstration classes; and for the general public there are study courses which are supplemented by correspondence, enrolling a large number of students. There is a "home hour" in the morning for mothers and one in the evening for fathers, besides programs of a general character.

The proposal of the Government of Panama to establish a radio station in Panama City, in order to arouse the interest of the people in national questions, has met with favor. It is also proposed to establish receiving stations in the most important towns of the interior, as has been done in Colombia.

Uruguay has a "School of the Air", and CX6, the Estación Oficial de Difusión Radioeléctrica (SODRE), broadcasts an excellent cultural program, including music by a symphony orchestra and much information of educational interest. Through an agreement between the Uruguayan Red Cross and the official Montevideo radio station, some time each week is reserved for the broadcasting of the activities of the society. This series of lectures, in charge of distinguished physicians and members of the Red Cross, will continue for a year in order to give the public ample information about the work of the institution. Some of the work accomplished by the Red Cross in other countries will also be described.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Inter-American Conference on Bibliography.—An Inter-American Conference on Bibliography will be held at Habana, Cuba, beginning November 5, 1934. This conference is the outgrowth of the resolution on bibliography presented by the Venezuelan delegation to the Sixth International Conference of American States at Habana in 1928, and of another resolution on the same subject passed by the Seventh Conference at Montevideo last year. A permanent committee of the Governing Board, consisting of the Ambassador of Chile, the Minister of Venezuela, and the Minister of Panama was appointed in 1928 to put the Habana resolution into effect. Under the auspices of this committee a project of program was prepared and submitted to the Cuban Government for approval. This program became the agenda of the Conference.

Protection of artistic and scientific institutions and historic monuments.—The Department of State has notified the Pan American Union that the Secretary of Agriculture, Hon. Henry A. Wallace, has been designated the American plenipotentiary to sign the Inter-American Treaty on the Protection of Artistic and Scientific Institutions and Historic Monuments.

The treaty is the result of a resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States, held in Montevideo, Uruguay, in December 1933, which recommended that the American Republics sign the Roerich Pact, an instrument prepared by the Roerich Museum of New York. Pursuant to the recommendation of the Conference, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union took the fundamental principles of the Roerich project and drafted them in the form of an inter-American treaty which will be opened to the signature of the American Republics on April 14, 1935, or at an earlier

date if all the Governments members of the Union appoint their plenipotentiaries before April 14th.

The treaty provides that historic monuments, museums, scientific, artistic, educational, and cultural institutions shall be considered neutral in time of war and shall be protected by a special flag. The protection afforded by the treaty extends to the personnel of the institutions.

The action of the United States in appointing Secretary Wallace as the American Plenipotentiary brings the number of States that have indicated their intention to sign the treaty to three, Panama and Honduras having already empowered their representatives on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to sign the instrument. The prompt action of these governments is an indication of the interest the treaty has aroused among the nations of America.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Panamanian National Committee on Bibliography.—The Government of Panama has appointed the following scholars to the Panamanian National Committee on Bibliography of the Pan American Union: Dr. Octavio Méndez Pereira, rector (president) of the Instituto Nacional and director of the Academia Panameña de la Historia; Dr. J. D. Moscote, former director of the Instituto Nacional and member of the Academia de la Historia; Señor Juan A. Susto, director of the Archivos Nacionales and secretary of the Academia de la Historia; and Señor Ernesto J. Castellero of the Academia Panameña de la Lengua.

Documentary material relative to the Inter-American Congress of Bibliography.—The Pan American Union has prepared for the Inter American Congress of Bibliography which will convene in Havana, Cuba, on November 5, 1934, a compilation of the resolutions on bibliography passed by the Sixth and Seventh International Conferences of American states; reports to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union; and comments on problems of inter-American bibliography and library science. Of this mimeographed pamphlet, number 13 of the *Congress and Conference Series*, a few copies are still available for free distribution.

Recent acquisitions.—Contained in a shipment of books from the National Library in Rio de Janeiro were 34 volumes on history, constitutional law, description, biography, and literature. Included were correspondence, speeches, and constitutional studies of Ruy Barbosa; letters of Father Anchieta, issued as volume III of the *Cartas Jesuiticas*; biographies of General Gomes Carneiro, by Pedro Calmon, of Baron Mauá, by Alberto de Faria, of Padre Belchior de Pontes, by Padre Manoel da Fonseca, and of Dom Pedro II, by Viscount Taunay; several anthropological studies, by Pedro Calmon,

Alfredo Ellis Junior, Alfredo Ladislau, Peregrino Junior, and Edgardo Roquette Pinto, respectively; the first volume of a series of critical essays by Humberto de Campos; *Noções de Historia da Educação*, by Afranio Peixoto; a two-volume work on transportation in Rio de Janeiro, by Noronha Santos; the first volume of the complete works of Antonio Vieira, edited by Pedro Calmon; and volume III of *A Politica Exterior do Imperio*, by Pandiá Calogeras, which deals with the period from the Regency to the fall of Rosas.

Among the other books received during the past month are the following:

Discursos parlamentarios [por] Domingo F. Sarmiento. Prólogo del Dr. Alfredo L. Palacios. Buenos Aires, "El Ateneo", 1933. 2 v. 18 cm. (Grandes escritores argentinos . . ., vols. XLVI, XLVII) [This collection of speeches of Sarmiento, the "builder of the new Argentina" as one biographer so aptly calls him, is taken from his complete works. It consists of the speeches made in the controversy with Rawson, two addresses on intervention in the Provinces, one on higher education, and others.]

Escritos históricos y literarios [por] Juan María Gutiérrez. Buenos Aires, "El Ateneo", 1934. 220 p. 18 cm. (Grandes escritores argentinos . . . vol. XLVIII.) [Gutiérrez was an educator, historian, bibliographer, poet of the transition period (between classic and romantic), and one of the founders of the famous Asociación de Mayo. In this volume of representative writings, taken from the *Revista del Río de la Plata* of which he was once editor, several phases of mid-nineteenth-century Argentine cultural life are shown.]

Contra Rosas [por] Domingo F. Sarmiento. Buenos Aires, "El Ateneo", 1934. 217 p. 18 cm. (Grandes escritores argentinos . . ., vol. XLIX) [Of the 50 volumes already published in the series to date, this is the ninth by Sarmiento. It continues the account in volume XXXVI, *Politica de Rosas*; the two taken together tell the full story of the tyrant's despotic regime. Although Sarmiento never wrote the *Life of Rosas* that he had planned, he left these articles, which can well take the place of the unwritten work.]

Intermezzo; dos décadas de recuerdos literarios (1888-1908) [por] Joaquín V. González. Prólogo de Rafael Alberto Arrieta. Buenos Aires, "El Ateneo", 1934. 307 p. 18 cm. (Grandes escritores argentinos . . ., vol. L) [This interesting volume of literary essays, published posthumously, shows only one side of the versatile Dr. González, whose death in 1923 ended a career in the fields of law, politics, literature, and education, to which the fifty-one volumes of his complete works are only one monument.]

Solar, 1931; órgano de divulgación del Museo antropológico y etnográfico de la Facultad de filosofía y letras [de la Universidad de Buenos Aires] dirigido por Félix F. Outes. [Buenos Aires, Imprenta de la Universidad, 1931?] 492 p. illus., plates (part col.), ports., diagrs. (1 fold.), maps. 19 cm. [The Anthropological and Ethnographical Museum begins with this volume its series of scientific publications, recording the results of its investigations. The review, *Solar*, contains a collection of various papers and addresses, as well as reviews of recent books on related topics. Other publications of the Museum are *Publicaciones del Museo, Serie A* (of which the first two volumes are listed below) and *Serie B*, and *Cartillas del Museo*.]

Publicaciones del Museo antropológico y etnográfico de la Facultad de filosofía y letras [de la Universidad de Buenos Aires] dirigidas por Félix F. Outes.

Serie A, I-II. Buenos Aires, Imprenta de la Universidad, 1931-1932. 2 v. illus., plates, diagrs., maps. 27 cm. [Volume I contains a single study, *La virrienda natural en la región serrana de Córdoba*, by Francisco de Aparicio, a consideration of rural habitations in that province with 99 plates. Volume II contains a number of anthropological and archaeological essays, profusely illustrated.]

Constituição da República dos Estados Unidos do Brasil. Rio de Janeiro, Imprensa nacional, 1934. 64 p. 23 cm. [This is the new Constitution signed on July 16, 1934.]

Bibliografía de Enrique José Varona . . . por el Doctor Fermín Peraza y Sarasa. Habana, Imprenta Molina y cía., 1932. 299 p. plate (port.) 24 cm. (Colección cubana de libros y documentos inéditos o raros, dirigida por Fernando Ortiz. vol. 11) [The death of Dr. Varona in 1933 deprived Cuba of one of her greatest sons—educator, philosopher, man of letters. He grew up with his country's history. This bibliography covers the period from 1868, when as a youth of 19 years he wrote *Odas anacreónticas*, to 1931. It contains 1,880 entries.]

Impresiones de un viaje a Galápagos [por] Nicolás G. Martínez. [Tercera edición] Quito, Talleres gráficos nacionales, 1934. 182 p. 19 cm. (Publicaciones del Observatorio de Quito, Sección de geofísica.) [The first edition appeared in 1915. The third edition is published with the text intact but with footnotes. Based on his diary, the descriptive information of the author is thus first hand. With the scientific and historical data which he adds this volume becomes more than mere "impressions."]

El cristal indígena [por] Augusto Arias. Quito, Editorial América, 1934. 209 p. front. (port.) 20 cm. [The title of this book is metaphoric. It is a biography of the eighteenth-century Ecuadorean savant Francisco Eugenio Javier de Santa Cruz y Espejo, forerunner of Ecuadorean Independence. Espejo lives again in this long and complete biography. Señor Arias speaks of him as a physician, a scientist, a religious man, and a man of letters. The large modern government hospital opened in Quito last year is named for Espejo. The volume is also interesting as the first issued by a new publishing house in Quito, the "Editorial America."]

Oficios o cartas al Cabildo de Quito por el Rey de España o el Virrey de Indias, 1552-1568, descifrados por Jorge A. Garcés G. Quito [Talleres tipográficos municipales] 1934. xvi, 648 p. plates (part col.), ports., facsim. 28 cm. (Publicaciones del Archivo municipal.) [This work is a companion volume to *Libros primero y segundo de Cabildos de Quito*, noted in the BULLETIN for July 1934, and takes the place of the *Libro tercero de Cabildos*, since the complete documentary material for that period was lost. This volume is likewise published on the occasion of the four-hundredth anniversary of the founding of Quito. Señor Garcés has compiled the documents for publication and transcribed them in present-day Spanish. As an appendix there is added the descriptive *La Cíudad de Sant Francisco del Quito* written in 1573 anonymously and the *Descripción de la ciudad de Quito y vecindad de ella*, por el Arcediano de su Iglesia, Lic. Pedro Rodríguez de Aguayo, reprinted from volume III of the now rare work *Relaciones geográficas de Indias* (Madrid, 1879).]

La imprenta en Guatemala; algunas adiciones a la obra que con este título publicó en Santiago de Chile el ilustre literato Don José Toribio Medina, por Gilberto Valenzuela. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1933. vol. 1. 459 p. illus. (ports.) 20 cm. [In seeking material for a Guatemalan bibliography, Señor Valenzuela has discovered many items in addition to those in Medina's work, published in 1910; the first of these discoveries, dealing with the years from 1676 to 1830, are incorporated in this volume.]

Verdadera y notable relación del descubrimiento y conquista de la Nueva España y Guatemala, escrita por el Capitán Bernal Díaz del Castillo en el siglo xvi. . . Edición conforme al manuscrito original que se guarda en el Archivo de la municipalidad de Guatemala. Prólogo de Eduardo Mayora. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1933-34. 2 v. col. pl. facsim. 27 cm. (Biblioteca "Goathemala" de la Sociedad de geografía e historia . . . vol. x-xi.) [The first edition of this famous history of the Conquest was published in Madrid in 1632. With this work the Sociedad de geografía e historia publishes a worthy addition to the other histories of Guatemala which it has made available.]

Libro viejo de la fundación de Guatemala y papeles relativos a D. Pedro de Alvarado. Prólogo del licenciado Jorge García Granados. Guatemala [Tipografía nacional] 1934. 404 p. illus., ports., facsim. 27 cm. (Biblioteca "Goathemala" de la Sociedad de geografía e historia . . . vol. xii.) [More sixteenth-century source material for Guatemalan history is found in this volume. Its contents include the *Libro viejo*, the proceedings of the Cabildo of Guatemala City from 1524 to 1530, and letters and documents relative to Alvarado from 1524 to 1545.]

Séptima conferencia internacional americana. Memoria general y actuación de la delegación de México, presentada por el Dr. J. M. Puig Casauranc . . . México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1934. xxi, 552 p. 24 cm. [This is a report on the Seventh International Conference of American States and especially on the work of the Mexican delegation. There are two supplementary volumes, *Apéndice A* (listed below), containing all the studies and reports that the Mexican delegation presented at the Conference, and *Apéndice B*, containing documents, speeches, etc., of other delegations mentioned in the *Memoria General*, and press reports from all the Americas relating to the Conference in general as well as to the Mexican delegation. The latter will be listed next month.]

Séptima conferencia internacional americana. Memoria general y actuación de la delegación de México. Apéndice A (estudios, informes, iniciativas y documentos diversos presentados en la Conferencia por la Delegación de México, Imprenta de la Secretaría de relaciones exteriores, 1934. xiv, 934 p. 24 cm.

José Antonio Barrenechea, 1829-1889; su vida y su obra. [Lima] Imprenta Torres Aguirre [1929?] lxxv, 643 p. plates (ports., 1 col.) 24 cm. [This volume was dedicated to José Antonio Barrenechea by his descendants on the centenary of his birth in 1929. He served his country in many ways during the last half of the nineteenth century, as jurist, statesman, and diplomat. This volume contains a biography by Raúl Porras Barrenechea; the genealogy of the family; various speeches, articles, letters, and studies of his, including a long work on civil law, all arranged chronologically; and press reports and other eulogies published both at his death and at the 1929 centenary.]

Anales históricos del Uruguay [por] Eduardo Acevedo. (tomo v.) [Montevideo, "Casa A. Barreiro y Ramos", 1934] 704 p. tables. 23 cm. (Anales de la Universidad [de la República], Entrega N.º 134) Contents: Los gobiernos de Idiarte Borda, Cuestas, Batlle y Ordóñez, Williman, y Batlle y Ordóñez, desde 1894 hasta 1915. [The University began the publication of this long and complete history with volume 130 of its *Anales* in 1933. Volume 5 brings it into the twentieth century. Dr. Acevedo is the author of several other valuable historical works, some of which have likewise been published as part of the *Anales de la Universidad*.]

Archivo del General Miranda. Revolución francesa . . . Tomo xiv. Caracas, Parra León hermanos, Editorial Sur-América, 1933. 502 p. facsim. 23½ cm. [Volume 14 is the seventh and last on the French Revolution, and is a continuation of volume 13, containing as it does the last of the "Cartas interceptadas". It also contains Miscelánea: 1792 a 1797; Impresos y grabados: 1792 a 1797; and Apéndice de cartas: 1792 a 1801.]

The Spanish origin of international law; Francisco de Vitoria and his law of nations, by James Brown Scott . . . Oxford, Clarendon press; London, H. Milford, 1934. 288, clviii p. front. (port.), plates. 25½ cm. (Publications of the Carnegie endowment for international peace, Division of international law) [Francisco de Vitoria, the founder of the Spanish school of international law in the sixteenth century which antedated Grotius, and the author of two works which set forth his law of nations, is herein presented to English readers through a valuable treatise on his doctrines by Dr. Scott and the complete English translation of Vitoria's works. This book is the first volume of Dr. Scott's *Spanish origin of international law*.]

A history of American foreign policy, by John Holladay Latané . . . revised and enlarged by David W. Wainhouse . . . Garden City, New York, Doubleday, Doran & company, inc. [c 1934] 861 p. 7 maps on 14 plates. 27 cm. [Dr. Latané intended to revise this excellent work but was prevented from doing so by his death in 1932. Mr. Wainhouse has brought the work up to date, revising and enlarging the sections after chapter 22, *The Panama Canal*. The book will continue to be the aid to students of American diplomacy that it has been since it was first published in 1927, since it is based on valuable primary and secondary source material and written clearly from a liberal point of view.]

The following magazines are new or have been received in the Library for the first time:

Senda; revista de ciencias, letras y arte; órgano de la Escuela normal nacional "Dr. Alejandro Carbó". Córdoba, 1933. Núm. 1, julio 1933. 44 p. illus. 31½ x 23 cm. Monthly. Editor: Eduardo R. Luque. Address: Colón 950, Córdoba, República Argentina.

Rumo; publicação do Serviço de publicidade e divulgação da Casa do estudante do Brasil. Rio de Janeiro, 1933. Ano 1, nº 3, julho de 1933. 23 p. illus., ports. 32x23½ cm. Monthly. Editors: Carlos Lacerda, Rui Costa, M. Braga de Carvalho. Address: Larga da Carioca 11-2º, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Boletín de la Sociedad geográfica de Colombia (Academia de ciencias geográficas). Bogotá, 1934. Segunda época, Año 1, núm. 1, junio de 1934. 80 p. illus., plates, maps (1 fold.) 24x17 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Jorge Álvarez Lleras. Address: Observatorio astronómico nacional, Carrera 8ª Número 8-00.

Derecho; revista del Colegio de abogados, Medellín. Medellín, 1934. Año VII, Tomo III, números 29 y 30, julio de 1934. [96] p. 24x16½ cm. Quarterly. Editors: Jaime Restrepo Moreno, José Restrepo R. Address: Parque de Berrío, Ed. del Banco de la República, nros. 9 y 10, Medellín, Colombia.

Costa Rica filatélica; órgano oficial de la Sociedad filatélica de Costa Rica. San José, 1934. Año II, nº 5, enero de 1934. 24 p. illus. 25½x17 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Gamaliel Noriega. Address: Apartado postal nº. 495, San José, Costa Rica.

The Dominican Republic actually. New York, 1934. Number 1, June 1934. 8 p. illus., port. 30x23 cm. Monthly. Editor: Consulate general of the Dominican Republic in New York. Address: 17 Battery Place, New York, New York.

Surco; arte, literatura, ciencia. Guatemala, 1934. Tomo 1º, nº 1, junio de 1934. 26 p. 21x16 cm. Monthly. Editors: M. Marsicovetere y Durán, Xavier López Contreras. Address: 8ª. Av. N., Nº. 9, Guatemala, Guatemala.

Mujer; semanario hondureño de avanzada feminista. Tegucigalpa, 1934. Año 1, núm. 4, julio 10 de 1934. 19 p. illus. (ports.) 30x22 cm. Editor: Clementina Suárez. Address: Av. Telégrafos nacionales, Tegucigalpa, Honduras.

Mapa; revista de turismo; publicación mensual de la editorial "Mercurio". México, 1934. Tomo 1, núm. 1, abril de 1934. 46 p. illus., maps. 29x21 cm. Address: Editorial Mercurio, México, D.F., México.

Nave; revista pedagógica de vanguardia; órgano del "Ateneo pedagógico" de México. México, 1934. Año 11, núm. 6, 1934. [28] p. 29x20 cm. Editor: Manuel Boneta. Address: Calle de la Fraternidad 13, Colonia Balbuena, México, D.F., México.

Futuro. México, 1933. Núm. 1, Tomo 1, diciembre 1º de 1933. 32 p. illus., (ports.), 34½x23 cm. Bi-monthly. Editor: Vicente Lombardo Toledano. Address: Editorial "Futuro", Pasaje Borda, despacho 117, Esquina Madero y Bolívar, México, D.F., México.

El Economista; revista de economía y finanzas. San Salvador, 1934. Año 1, N° 1, abril de 1934. 72 p. tables (part fold.) 24x18 cm. Monthly. Editor: José E. Suay. Address: 11ª Avenida Sur N° 25, San Salvador, Salvador.

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PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

SUMMARIES OF PRESIDENTIAL MESSAGES

I. CHILE

The second annual message of President Arturo Alessandri of Chile, delivered at the opening of the ordinary session of Congress on May 21, 1934, has been favorably commented upon at home and abroad. "I assumed the Presidency of the Republic", said Señor Alessandri, "with the duty, entrusted to me by my fellow countrymen, of preserving public order, defending the civil system of government, and laboring untiringly for the economic reconstruction of the country. To a large extent I have already fulfilled my program. Public order has been and is being inalterably maintained and we are advancing resolutely on the road toward economic recovery. The dawn of a new day, happier and more fruitful, is beginning to appear on the horizon." At the end of his message, summarizing the hopeful signs of improvement under his policy of economic reconstruction, he said: "The result derived from the facts and figures which I have presented is that a country in a state of collapse, inherited from the *de facto* governments, stands today with a balanced budget and well-ordered public finances. All internal obligations of the Government have been met in due course. There has been no delay in paying public salaries, as was to be feared in view of the state of finances when I took office. Debts in arrears have been covered and the internal debt has been diminished by a considerable number of millions. A substantial reduction has also been made in the deficits incurred by previous administrations. Unemployment has ceased and there remain only the indigent, for whom the Government is caring until a definite solution is found for their problem. In this respect it is worthy of note that six or seven thousand workers in the gold washings have left because they found more remunerative work in other activities. This fact attests the growth of national production and the success of the Government's unemployment relief measures.

"Deposits in and loans by banking institutions have increased and obligations due them have been met promptly and under better conditions than in previous years. The paid-up capital of stock companies has doubled and transactions in securities have shown a considerable growth. The same improvement is noticeable in the insurance business. Income tax declarations have reached amounts

hitherto unknown in the economic history of the country. Under the policy of commercial reciprocity and protection followed by the Government, export trade has expanded, greatly improving our trade balance. National and private railways have seen their income rise appreciably. Agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing production has increased considerably, consumption following the trend of these increases." President Alessandri then made a strong appeal to those who had benefited most from the Government's efforts, to pass on these benefits to the middle and laboring classes in the form of augmented employment and higher wages.

GOVERNMENTAL REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE

Governmental expenditure for the year 1933 had been estimated by the previous administration, the President said, at 1,060,312,455 pesos and revenues at 520,000,000 pesos. Instead of this large deficit there was a surplus at the end of 1933 of 1,831,654 pesos. Expenditures were reduced to 944,127,512 pesos, of which some 200,000,000 pesos were employed for public works and direct and indirect unemployment relief, a sum which would previously have been considered an extraordinary expenditure to be financed by loans. Revenues, amounting to 945,959,167.13 pesos, were secured principally through heavier taxation, thus checking the inflationary movement which was so marked in 1931 and 1932. Import taxes were increased 50 percent, netting about 55,000,000 pesos; a 2 percent tax was imposed on commercial transactions, estimated to produce some 80,000,000 pesos for the last 10 months of 1933 but which actually produced less since it was delayed by congressional debate; nitrate revenues, as provided in the law which created the Nitrate Sales Corporation, amounted to 140,000,000 pesos; and 30,000,000 pesos were secured through the retirement and melting of the old one-peso coins.

Revenues and expenditures for 1934 were originally estimated by the present administration at \$45,659,000 and \$45,424,935 pesos, respectively, of which 136,036,000 were to be spent for public works and unemployment relief. This estimate was changed to \$30,499,000 and \$30,493,995 pesos respectively, by reducing the appropriation for public works after a law passed by Congress exempting the sale of certain articles from the 2 percent transaction tax reduced the estimated revenues by about 20,000,000 pesos. The tax, however, was reimposed by Congress, exempting only articles considered necessities when sold directly to the consumer and reducing the tax to 0.5 percent on transactions in municipal slaughter houses and public markets. A supplementary law was then passed restoring 20,995,000 pesos to the public works appropriation and providing for an expenditure of 5,000,000 pesos for hospital services, this supplementary credit to be met with the proceeds of the reimposed tax.

INTERNAL DEBT

In addition to balancing the budget, the Government had to find means to reduce the deficits from previous years which, on December 31, 1932, amounted to 218,269,996 pesos. This amount was reduced during the year to 63,828,228 pesos. The short term advances, amounting to 672,470,371 pesos, made by the Central Bank during 1931 and 1932, were consolidated into a long-term loan paying 2 percent interest and 1 percent amortization per annum. About 20,000,000 pesos have already been paid in accordance with Law No. 5408, which authorized the payment of 55,000,000 pesos of the debts contracted by previous administrations prior to January 1, 1933, and 96,000,000 pesos owed by the Government to the Cajas de Previsión (social insurance funds). The total indebtedness of the Government was reduced during 1933 by 56,052,172 pesos.

COMMERCIAL POLICY

An outstanding accomplishment of the foreign policy of Chile during 1933 was the negotiation of commercial agreements with South American and European governments. Commercial treaties signed during the year with Argentina and Peru contained a number of reciprocal custom concessions intended to increase and facilitate commercial intercourse with these nations. The negotiation of a similar treaty with Colombia was reported to be in an advanced stage. Compensation agreements were negotiated with a number of European countries for the liquidation of foreign credits blocked in Chile on account of exchange control, as well as for assuring the sale of Chilean products, especially nitrate, in foreign markets. Agreements of this type were signed during the year with Sweden, Germany, and Belgium. It was expected that agreements with Spain and Holland would be signed in the near future. Private agreements of the same nature were signed, with the Government's authorization, between the Nitrate Sales Corporation and official institutions in Austria, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, and Italy. The President also stated that the Government had begun the study of commercial treaties with a number of American and European countries, among them Great Britain, the United States, Brazil, Cuba, and Ecuador.

FOREIGN TRADE

The improvement in the foreign trade of the country can be clearly seen, the President stated, by comparing statistics for the first three months of 1933 with those for the corresponding period in 1934. Exports increased from 92.9 million gold pesos to 136.4 million pesos, or 46 percent. Imports, on the contrary, decreased from 46.6 million

gold pesos to 40 million, or 14 percent. The increase in exports has been due to improved conditions in the mining industries and larger shipments of agricultural and livestock products. The exports of minerals amounted to 92 million gold pesos as compared with 66 million during the first three months of 1933, nitrate shipments increasing from 143,000 tons to 410,000 tons and copper from 23,900 tons to 36,600. Shipments of beans, lentils, and other legumes, cereals, wines, and fresh and preserved fruits show considerable increases over 1933. Exports of livestock products increased from 12.1 million gold pesos to 28.6 million, owing to better prices for wool. During the first three months of 1933 wool exports amounted to 5,000 tons valued at 10.1 million pesos, as compared with 8,600 tons valued at 25.8 million pesos in 1934. New exports such as coal, sulphur, timber, sodium sulphate, and some industrial products are reported to be holding their ground and in many cases increasing. Commercial control over exports has been continued so that Chilean products may find a better market abroad. To this end regulations for the standardization of various export products have been issued and others have been improved in accordance with the experience gained while they were in effect.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE NITRATE INDUSTRY

The effect of the reorganization of the nitrate industry is already beginning to be felt. A new chapter in the nitrate industry was opened, when, on January 8, 1934, President Alessandri signed Law No. 5350 creating the Chilean Nitrate and Iodine Sales Corporation. (See *Chile Revamps the Nitrate Industry* in the May 1934 issue of the BULLETIN.)

Through the operation of this law the companies which formed the *Cosach* (the former nitrate association) have separated for production purposes, but in order to compete with producers of synthetic nitrate the marketing of the product is concentrated in one entity: the sales corporation. The corporation purchases the nitrate from the companies at the "industrial cost" of the product, that is, without taking into account interest on capital, amortization and service on loans, and sells the nitrate abroad at whatever price it can obtain even without profit. In this manner, the President says, the debts of the industry are eliminated from the calculation of purchase and sales prices,¹ employment in the nitrate fields is assured as long as nitrate can be sold at cost, and the Government obtains a reasonable share of the profits when nitrate can be sold at a profit. The President pointed out that since this share in the profits will be in foreign currency, it will

¹ The service of the debts will be met only when there are profits available. Profits will be distributed between the Government and the producers in the proportion of 25 percent and 75 percent, respectively.

enable the Government, when the recovery of the country permits, to attack, at least in part, the problem of the external debt.

Since the country is now able to compete favorably in world markets, the President estimates that in the 1933-34 nitrate year more than a million tons of nitrate will be sold as compared with 822,000 tons in the previous year. Four more plants were in operation in March 1934 than in the past year; there were 16,110 laborers working in the nitrate fields as compared with 12,358 in May 1933; and the monthly output of the industry has increased from an average of 36,109 tons to 52,162 tons.

IMPROVEMENT IN THE GENERAL CONDITIONS OF THE COUNTRY

The trend of banking transactions, said President Alessandri, has always and everywhere been considered an index of the economic conditions of a country and in general an indication of the degree of confidence which the Government inspires in the people. Thus a reduction in loans and other advances is a sure sign of economic depression and of public distrust. An increase reveals prosperity and confidence in the future. On the other hand, the amount of banking deposits accurately reflects this same social phenomenon: a decrease shows economic uneasiness and uncertainty and an increase denotes activity and confidence in business. Also the decrease or increase of the amount of banking obligations in arrears confirms the degree of prosperity or depression of the national economy.

As evidence of the progressive improvement in economic conditions in Chile the President included the following table in his message. It shows the total amount of loans, deposits, and payments in arrears of all the commercial banks and the National Saving Bank on December 31, 1932 and March 10, 1934. Loans and deposits show an increase, payments in arrears a decrease.

	Dec. 31, 1932	Mar. 10, 1934	Percent increase (+) or decrease (-)
Advances:	<i>Paper pesos</i>	<i>Paper pesos</i>	
Commercial banks.....	1,220,709,253.91	1,428,745,757.91	+17.04
National Savings Bank.....	130,462,201.60	283,977,154.85	+117.67
	1,351,171,455.51	1,712,722,912.76	+26.76
Deposits:			
Commercial banks.....	1,182,488,531.63	1,377,392,201.16	+16.48
National Savings Bank.....	444,404,056.84	596,594,602.82	+34.25
	1,626,892,588.47	1,973,986,803.98	+21.33
Payments in arrears:			
Commercial banks.....	229,156,040.39	167,739,264.56	-26.80
National Savings Bank.....	8,473,987.40	6,999,073.98	-17.41
	237,630,027.79	174,738,338.54	-26.47

The President quoted other figures to show signs of improving conditions: An increase in the yield of the paid-in capital of stock companies (2,879,549,711 pesos, not including insurance companies) from 2.17 percent in 1932 to 4.24 percent during 1933; an increase of 61.2 percent in stock exchange transactions; an increase of 547 million pesos in the amount of insurance and of 11 percent in the premiums as well as an increase of half a million pesos in the direct taxes paid by the insurance companies; and an increase in the number of income-tax returns and in the profits shown by these returns.

UNEMPLOYMENT

At the end of 1932 there were in Chile about 160,000 unemployed out of a total population of 4,419,677. In May 1934 there were fewer than 40,000, of which half were reported to be professional beggars or unemployable. The great mass of laborers were absorbed by agriculture, gold washing, the mining industry, the nitrate plants, numerous public works, and the building trades. Of the various measures adopted by the Government to combat unemployment, gold washing has been one of the most effective and least expensive. During 1933 more than 40,000 men were thus employed; this figure was reduced at the end of the year to 31,500, the difference having been absorbed by other industries, principally agriculture. Gold production in 1933 amounted to 1,932 kilograms (kilogram equals 2.2 pounds), valued at 49.9 million pesos.

MUNICIPAL AND PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT

The President early in his administration submitted a bill to Congress providing for the election of municipal authorities, thus putting an end to the Presidential appointment of these officials in direct violation of the constitution. The measure passed by Congress on January 15, 1934, fixing the rules for the election of *regidores municipales* (aldermen) has, the President believes, perfected and amplified the Chilean electoral system, since it gives the right to vote in municipal elections to women and to foreigners who have resided in Chile for more than five years. Once the registration in accordance with this law has been completed, the elections will be called. The President has submitted to Congress a bill establishing provincial assemblies as provided in the constitution. Since each assembly is to be composed of representatives from the communes of the respective Provinces, it was impossible to act until the problem of municipal authorities had been settled. Now that that matter has been successfully solved, the President asked Congress to hasten the enactment of the bill mentioned.

EDUCATION

The work of the Government during the year 1933 with respect to education had as its special aim the reorganization of institutions and the reestablishment of standards which had broken down as a consequence of disturbed conditions in the country during the last few years. This fundamental aim achieved, the Government faced the problem of orienting national education in accordance with the social and economic conditions of the country.

Primary education—the most important branch of public education, according to the President—has been improved during 1933 and facilities provided for a larger number of pupils. In the rural districts 186 new schools were established and 556 teachers added to the rolls, thus providing school facilities for 27,000 more children and solving the unemployment problem of teachers.

Trade schools, which the President considered are the logical continuation of primary education, were given preferential attention, and 14 new ones were established.

The problem of the rural schools has received the special attention of the Government. Measures have been enacted in order to provide rural schools with a sufficient number of teachers, secure the appointment of married couples to coeducational schools in the country, supply tools to schools that have at least 2½ acres of land for their agricultural activities, establish courses on agriculture and small industries in Viqueña, etc.; train personnel for farm schools, and prepare a specialized program of agricultural and industrial activities for such schools, which number 150; obtain improvement in the personnel of primary schools, and impose stricter requisities for admission into the normal schools.

Improvement in the organization and functioning of night schools was noted. Commissions are working on the question of text books and in the differentiating between the curricula of urban and of rural schools, with particular emphasis on the needs of each region.

3,750 pupils were enrolled in the 10 commercial institutes. Courses of study in the 11 establishments where 3,353 women receive vocational training have been changed.

The curriculums of industrial and mining schools were revised, equipment improved, and an additional school created at Valdivia.

II. COSTA RICA

An increase in the foreign trade of the country and in governmental revenues was viewed by President Ricardo Jiménez as a sign of improved business conditions in Costa Rica. "We are not out of the depression yet," he stated in his message to Congress on May 1, 1934,

"but our feet, instead of sinking in a morass, are now treading firmer ground." Prosperity or depression in Costa Rica is largely a matter of the volume of the coffee crop and the price which this principal export product commands in world markets. The 1932-33 crop, the President says, was the largest ever harvested in Costa Rica. About 27.8 million kilos of coffee were gathered, an increase of about 50 percent above the preceding crop, and for the first time, since 1883 at least, coffee exports exceeded 600,000 quintals. Prices, however, were low. In spite of that fact, the crop is estimated to have netted 36.3 million colones, an increase of 11.7 millions over the cash value of the preceding one. Although the 1933-34 crop is estimated to be at least one-third less abundant than the preceding one, the President expects the cash yield to be higher because of the rise of prices in foreign markets.

Exports and imports increased during 1933 to 48.3 million colones and 38.8 million colones, respectively, leaving a favorable balance of 9.5 million colones. The increase in export trade was due to larger coffee shipments. Exports of bananas and cacao decreased both in volume and value.

Since exchange control was instituted in Costa Rica because of fear that the proceeds of the export trade would be insufficient to meet imports, the favorable trade balance obtained last year led the President to ask Congress in his message to return to the system of free exchange which prevailed before January 1932. Voicing his dissatisfaction with the working of the exchange control machinery, President Jiménez stated that it had slowed up import and export transactions, restricted the credit which foreign houses grant to importers and other business men, led to the fixing of unjustified exchange rates—sometimes too high, sometimes too low, thus working hardships alternately on importers and on exporters—and caused great inconvenience to travelers.

An increase in the income derived from the Pacific Railway and the customs caused the actual revenue for 1933 to exceed budgetary estimates. Actual revenues amounted to 23,884,006 colones. The budget and supplementary appropriations fixed expenditures for 1933 at 26,461,846 colones; only 24,569,408 colones were spent, however, leaving a deficit of 685,402 colones, the smallest since 1929. The largest single item of expenditure consisted of payments on the public debt (5,294,771 colones). The second largest sum was for education; this amounted to 4,530,330 colones, including 435,388 colones spent by the Ministry of Promotion for school buildings. Other expenditures of that Ministry amounted to 4,319,018 colones, of which 1,482,978 were spent for relief of the unemployed. The President estimated that

last year the Army cost each Costa Rican citizen 0.84 colón, whereas public education cost 8.21 colones per capita.

Among the measures proposed by the President to the legislature was one for the relief of mortgage debtors to the government-owned International Bank of Costa Rica. Congress has already reduced the interest which debtors must pay from 12 percent, including amortization, to 6 percent per annum and suspended amortization payments. The President proposes to allow debtors of the bank who even so cannot meet their obligations to pay 3 percent interest on their debt for 20 years, automatically canceling their mortgages at the end of this period. Other proposals look forward to the liberalization of the law on unused public lands, an adequate water supply for Puntarenas, the unification of municipal legislation, and the revision of the 1926 amendment to the Constitution in regard to presidential elections. In discussing the sanitary problems of the country, the President praised the work of the Rockefeller Foundation, especially for the aid it has given the Government in the establishment of the Turrialba Sanitary Unit.

III. DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

In his fourth annual message to the National Assembly, President Rafael L. Trujillo Molina reported that, after carrying out budgetary requirements with respect to all obligations of the Government, the year 1933 ended with a surplus of \$82,067 and moreover that the external debt of the nation had been reduced, a large part of the floating debt amortized, and an extensive program of public works carried out.

Government revenues during 1933 were reported as \$8,415,432, a considerable increase over the \$7,421,652 received in 1932. The President attributed this principally to three causes: New taxes imposed in 1933, a gradual improvement in the general economic condition of the country, and a progressive improvement in the methods of collecting taxes. The external debt was reported to be \$16,320,500, after deducting the \$178,000 amortized during the year. The public works program included the construction of bridges over the Yuma, Yaque del Norte, Yubaso, and Higuamo rivers, the repair of 761 kilometers of highway (kilometer equals 0.62 mile), the paving of streets in Santo Domingo and Santiago, and the dredging of the harbor of San Pedro de Macoris.¹

During the past year the Dominican executive visited President Sténio Vincent of Haiti at Ouanaminthe, the latter crossing the Dominican frontier to return the call at Dajabón. As a result of the conver-

¹ Photographs of recently constructed public works in the Dominican Republic were published in the August 1934 issue of the BULLETIN.

sations then held between the Presidents of the two neighboring republics a commission has been appointed to settle difficulties arising out of the frontier treaty of January 21, 1929.

In accordance with the President's plan for reorganizing rural education, 504 schoolhouses were constructed during the year. The first National Medical Congress, convoked by executive decree, met at Santo Domingo on October 12, 1933.

An internal air-mail service was also established during the year.



THE MEXICAN FINANCE CORPORATION

The law of August 30, 1933, authorizing the Ministry of Finance to establish a national finance corporation to take over the real estate and mortgages held by private banks, has been amended by an executive decree of April 28, 1934.¹ The capital of the institution which, as stated in the January 1934 issue of the BULLETIN, was originally to be 100,000,000 pesos, has been reduced to 50,000,000 pesos, one half of which is to be subscribed by the Federal Government in land and cash and the other by individuals and by national and private credit institutions. Thus there will be two series of shares: A, representing the Government's contribution, and B, that of the banks'. The latter will be preferred stock, paying an annual dividend of 6 percent. The principal aim of the *Nacional Financiera*, S. A., as the new organization has been named, is to carry out the provisions of the General Law of Credit Institutions of June 28, 1932. This was designed to keep bank capital liquid and therefore obliged credit institutions to dispose of their real estate and mortgages within three years from the enactment of the law. About two-thirds of the governmental contributions to the capital of the new organization will be in real estate, which the corporation is expected to dispose of by promoting the Federal policy of colonization, irrigation, and division of land among small owners. To carry out these aims the *Nacional Financiera* is empowered, among other things, to administer, subdivide, colonize, irrigate, buy and sell land, organize and finance enterprises for these purposes, contract loans, buy and sell securities, organize credit unions, and act as the financial agent of the Ministry of Finance and Public Credit.

¹ Ley que modifica la que autorizó a la Secretaría de Hacienda y Crédito Público para la fundación de una Sociedad Financiera, y que crea la "Nacional Financiera" S.A. con el carácter de Institución Nacional de Crédito. *Diario Oficial*, Mexico, April 30, 1934.

IRON AND STEEL IN BRAZIL ¹

While the domestic production of iron and steel in Brazil has been steadily advancing to meet the insistent demand for those articles which can be economically produced within the country, expansion in manufacturing, housing, and transportation and the corresponding improvement in general living standards have been so rapid during the past two decades that local iron and steel manufacturers have been unable to keep pace with the growing requirements of the country. While the per capita use of iron and steel is still relatively small, the types of such articles entering into commerce there are as varied as in



Photograph by Leroy Miller and J. T. Singewald.

THE IRON REGION OF MINAS GERAES, BRAZIL.

Although extensive deposits of iron ore exist in Brazil, domestic production of iron and steel is unable to keep pace with the demand.

more highly industrial countries. In general it may be said that Brazil has a limited production of iron and steel products which require simple processing, whereas it relies on importations for manufactures requiring a greater element of technical skill or heavy capital investment.

Although there exist in Brazil vast deposits of high-grade iron ore, the production of steel products, begun almost three centuries ago, has not advanced as rapidly as might have been expected in a country where other industries have made such great progress. For many years there was a distinct tendency to establish small producing units with a few hundred tons annual capacity at widely separated points,

¹ Excerpts adapted from a report to the Department of Commerce by Ralph H. Ackerman, commercial attaché of the United States in Rio de Janeiro, April 13, 1934.

and these distributed their output to small areas limited by high transportation costs. Despite governmental protection and encouragement, these concerns, finding it increasingly difficult to compete with foreign producers, who were making great strides toward more economical production, gradually disappeared. Within the past two decades larger units have replaced these early pioneers and these have steadily expanded their range of activities, so that they offer severe competition to certain types of foreign-made steel, especially in the highly industrialized States of São Paulo, Minas Geraes, and Rio de Janeiro. However, the barriers of high transportation costs, the distances between the location of the iron ore deposits and coal supplies, and the large investments required have restricted the growth of these concerns to a limited number and output.

According to official publications of the Brazilian Government, there now exist in Brazil 10 producers of pig iron and steel, all of whom have their furnaces and most of them their steel mills in the State of Minas Geraes, where the large iron ore deposits are found. Of those only two companies equipped with rolling mills are actually in operation. The figures of output as submitted to the Government for the seven years ended December 31, 1932, were as follows:

Years	Pig iron (metric tons)	Steel (metric tons)	Iron and steel lami- nated in bars, rods, and profiled (metric tons)	Years	Pig iron (metric tons)	Steel (metric tons)	Iron and steel lami- nated in bars, rods, and profiled (metric tons)
1926.....	21,300	9,557	16,050	1930.....	34,974	20,693	25,895
1927.....	15,355	7,862	16,637	1931.....	37,983	23,644	23,941
1928.....	25,763	20,882	26,228	1932.....	33,352	48,254	39,412
1929.....	33,708	26,403	29,728				

In trade circles it is estimated that in the neighborhood of 50,000 tons of pig iron and between 40,000 and 45,000 tons of rolled products were produced during 1933, and 181,023 metric tons of iron and steel, valued at 168,098 contos, and 32,016 metric tons of machinery, apparatus, utensils, and tools, valued at 286,814 contos, imported. (The average value of the conto in 1933 was \$79.63.)

CURRENT EDUCATIONAL TRENDS IN COLOMBIA

Three years ago a reform affecting the entire school system of the country was instituted by the Government of Colombia through the Ministry of Education. A study of the changes and their effects was made by Álvaro Marín V. for the Spanish edition of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union. The following is a summary of his article:

The first break with traditional educational routine was made with the establishment of the Gimnasio Moderno in Bogotá, about 20 years ago. Its founder, Dr. Agustín Nieto Caballero, showed what a modern school should be, with emphasis on such important features as well-designed buildings, athletic fields, theater, and model farm. The students were taught to take an active, instead of a passive, part in school work, and to do their own investigating in fields of especial interest to them. The influence of the Gimnasio was felt in the capital and, to a much less degree, in its immediate vicinity.

In 1930 the Government established the National Bureau of Educational Inspection and appointed Dr. Nieto Caballero as its head. The new inspector-in-chief started almost immediately on an extended trip



THE GIMNASIO MODERNO, BOGOTÁ.

The founding of this school about twenty years ago by Dr. Agustín Nieto Caballero was the beginning of a new trend in the educational system of Colombia.

throughout the Republic in order to gain a personal knowledge of the schools. Everywhere he explained to gatherings of teachers the new educational theories, and to departmental assemblies and municipal councils the importance of proper school buildings.

On his return to Bogotá, the Government organized a course in the theory of education for teachers. A group representing all departments spent a year in Bogotá, where, in addition to studying modern pedagogy, they were given a supplementary course in general culture. Foreign authorities were invited to give lectures. The various schools in the capital were visited, and their organization and purpose discussed. Of especial value were meetings held in the Ministry of National Education, where the teachers were encouraged to give their

views on the school problem, after having seen it as a whole from the capital. After the year was over, the teachers returned to their respective departments, where many of them now hold responsible positions and are doing excellent work. The results were so favorable that the Government has continued the course each year since then.

In order to diffuse the new ideas as widely as possible, libraries have been established in the capital of each Department. The Ministry of Education has also presented to all teachers requesting it in writing a set of 15 books containing the basic principles for teaching natural sciences, history, and languages.



THE NATIONAL PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE, BOGOTÁ.

Positions in the normal schools of the country are filled by graduates of this Institute.

Normal schools, too, have been reorganized to accord with the most progressive ideas in education. In each Departmental capital there were two normal schools, one for men, the other for women, 28 in all. The two schools in each city are to be combined into a single coeducational institution as rapidly as possible, so that they will be fewer but more adequately equipped and staffed. This change has already been made at the splendid normal schools in Medellín and Tunja. Each has a large student body, teachers who are specialists in their subjects—many of them from Europe—well equipped laboratories, athletic fields, and social organizations. The new normal schools serve a twofold purpose: They prepare teachers for the new schools, and act as centers for spreading the new practices. For the latter

purpose, the doors are always open to interested visitors, and radio talks for teachers have been instituted, pedagogical publications distributed, and missions sent to neighboring towns.

Before undertaking the reorganization of the normal schools, the Government gave much thought to the curriculum. Now the course covers the 6-year high school requirements, and classes in pedagogy are also given in the last two years. Therefore, all normal school graduates will henceforward have a secondary school diploma; this is the first step in giving teaching a professional status. In consequence, the School of Education has been established in the National University at Bogotá for the further training of teachers. Such a school has also been established at the University of Tunja, and it is expected two others will shortly be opened, in Medellín and Popayán. Fellowships are granted by the Government to teachers who have distinguished themselves in the course in the theory of education mentioned at the beginning of this article, and to recent graduates of the normal schools who show particular aptitude for this kind of studies.

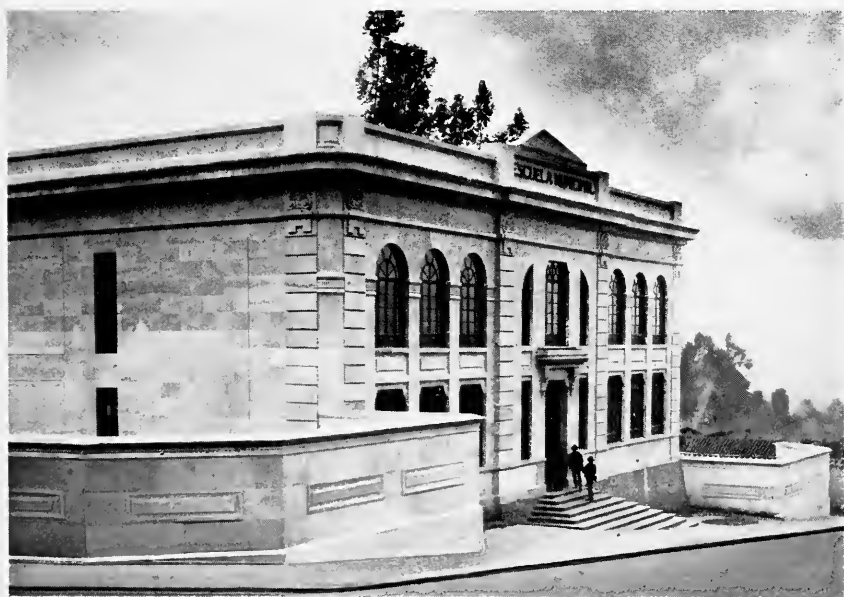
In the School of Education at the universities, two courses are offered, one of two, the other of four years. Those who take the 2-year course will be qualified to be school inspectors, directors of practice schools, and teachers in normal schools. The longer course prepares students to hold such positions as directors of normal schools, directors of education in the Departments, or heads of bureaus in the Ministry of Education. For these Schools of Education foreign professors have been engaged, especially in the fields of experimental psychology. The School of Education in Bogotá has begun the publication of a magazine called *Educación* as a mean of spreading information.

In connection with the newly reorganized normal schools, the Government has established so-called "type" schools. These are not only to offer opportunities for practice to normal students, who will observe in them and learn how to apply modern systems, but also to serve as models for the teachers of the Departments in which they function.

The primary school curriculum has also been thoroughly revised. The new program leaves the teacher free to adapt his instruction to local conditions so long as he satisfies the minimum requirements established by the authorities. A radical innovation is the reduction of the pre-high-school course from 6 to 4 years. The new plan calls for kindergartens, and, for those not planning to take the high-school course, a complementary 2-year course with special curricula for the different regions. In this way the students may begin vocational apprenticeship while the Government is completing its organization of special vocational schools.

To round out its educational program, the Government has provided that a number of students be sent abroad annually, both to other Latin American countries and to the United States. This fostering of intellectual interchange is completed by invitations to foreign professors to visit Colombia to give courses in the School of Education or to lecture to teachers in the capital and the principal cities throughout the Republic.

Those in charge of the new program are aware that in its present state the revised system is not perfect. But this very fact is encouraging the people of Colombia to look for daily improvement in their schools.



A MUNICIPAL SCHOOL IN BOGOTÁ.

In the revision of the educational system of Colombia radical innovations have been made in the primary school curriculum.

NECROLOGY

ALFREDO COLMO.—The President of the Instituto Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano of Buenos Aires, Dr. Alfredo Colmo, died suddenly in Buenos Aires on July 6 at the age of 56. He was stricken while attending, as one of the guests of honor, special exercises held in honor of the fiftieth anniversary of the Education Law passed during the administration of President Julio Argentino Roca.

Dr. Colmo will be greatly missed in legal and educational circles. As professor, magistrate, and writer on legal matters and subjects of public interest, especially educational and social problems, he had acquired an enviable reputation in spite of his modesty and reserve. He had traveled widely in Europe and America; from his visits to the United States, where he had lectured in many colleges and universities, sprang his interest in and sympathy for the older Republic. Largely as a result of these contacts, he was instrumental in founding, with a group of likeminded friends, the Instituto Cultural Argentino-Norteamericano, of which he was the president from its establishment in 1928.

JULIA LOPES DE ALMEIDA.—On May 30, 1934, one of the foremost literary figures of Brazil, D. Julia Lopes de Almeida, died in her native city of Rio de Janeiro at the age of 72. For more than 45 years her writings had delighted her fellow countrymen. Her early works were novels and short stories; later she wrote, in collaboration with her sister D. Adelina Lopes Vieira, children's stories that were very popular, and was a successful lecturer on literary subjects. Her poet husband, with whom she had collaborated several times, is Filinto de Almeida, a member of the Brazilian Academy of Letters; of her four children, a son, Affonso Lopes de Almeida, is recognized as a poet, and a daughter, Srta. Margarida Lopes de Almeida, has achieved fame as a sculptor.

DR. MIGUEL COUTO.—Seldom has the loss of any prominent citizen been as widely and profoundly felt in Brazil as was that of Dr. Miguel Couto, who died in Rio de Janeiro on June 6, 1934, at the age of 70. Among medical men of the first rank he was an outstanding figure throughout his long career, and his abilities were recognized abroad as well as at home. In his daily practice, as well as in his writing and in his teaching at the Medical School, he merited the affection and esteem of all who came in contact with him. He was a member not only of medical societies in Brazil—for 11 years, 1915-26, he was president of the National Academy of Medicine—and in other countries, both in America and in Europe, but also of the Institute of History and Geography of Ceará and of the Brazilian Academy of Letters.

JOSÉ DE MEDEIROS E ALBUQUERQUE.—For the third time in two weeks Brazil mourned the loss of a national figure, at the death of José de Medeiros e Albuquerque on June 9, 1934. He started his career during the Empire, in the field of public instruction, rising to the position of Director of Instruction, and wielding a strong influence over Brazilian education. With extraordinary energy and perseverance he had always fought unceasingly for the ideals and the causes he upheld in a wide and varied field of activities. In his later years he was an ardent advocate of revised spelling, and had the gratification of seeing it officially adopted by the Provisional Government of Brazil before his death.

It was in the field of letters, however, that the name of Medeiros e Albuquerque was best known. A poet, critic, polemist, and journalist, he displayed astonishing versatility in both style and subject matter. His legacy to Brazilian letters is therefore unusually copious and brilliant. He will also be mourned by all those who had the privilege of knowing him at the First Conference of Journalists, which met in the Pan American Union, from April 7 to 13, 1926.

LUIS RAZETTI.—In the course of its "Floating Congress" on board the S.S. *Penusylvania* in March 1934, members of the Fifth Pan American Medical Congress were entertained in Caracas and there presented with a volume containing tributes to the memory of the late Dr. Luis Razetti from representative physicians of 20 of the American nations, published under the title *Homenaje del Pan-americanismo Médico a la Memoria del Dr. Luis Razetti*.

"The Apostle of Social Medicine", as he has been aptly called, was born in Caracas in 1862. His father, who died when his son was still a boy, was Italian by birth; his mother, Doña Emeteria Martínez Sanz, was a granddaughter of the famous Licenciado Miguel J. Sanz, one of the founders of the Republic of Venezuela. The young man received his medical degree from the University of Caracas in 1884. After five years' practice, Dr. Razetti went to France to continue his studies.

Throughout the Americas Dr. Razetti had an enviable reputation as a practicing physician and surgeon, a teacher, a public health leader, an organizer, and a writer.

Surgery had a special appeal for Dr. Razetti, and he had performed more than 4,000 operations at the time of his death; many kinds he was the first to perform in Venezuela. He kept abreast of the latest medical discoveries, and was responsible for the introduction of many modern methods and practices in his native land. He had been honored by membership in many foreign medical associations and was the recipient of decorations from several governments.





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BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION



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NOVEMBER

1934

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D.C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

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HIS EXCELLENCY MR. OSWALDO ARANHA
AMBASSADOR EXTRAORDINARY AND PLENIPOTENTIARY OF BRAZIL
TO THE UNITED STATES



VOL. LXVIII

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No. 11

OSWALDO ARANHA AMBASSADOR OF BRAZIL TO THE UNITED STATES

WHEN the newly-appointed Ambassador of Brazil to the United States, Oswaldo Aranha, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on October 2, 1934, he referred warmly to the friendship between the two nations, which has been maintained without interruption for over a hundred years, to their community of interests, and to the mutual good will which their respective governments have always fostered. He also expressed the admiration of his people for the constructive measures taken by the United States in the present world situation. In replying, President Roosevelt thanked the Ambassador for his appreciative remarks concerning the efforts of his Government to combat the forces of depression, and agreed that the relations between the two countries were based on so solid a foundation that little governmental action was needed to fortify them.

Notwithstanding his youth—for Senhor Aranha was born at Alegrete, Rio Grande do Sul, February 15, 1894—the new Ambassador has already had a brilliant career in his own country. He received his early education in his native State, later attending the Military Academy in Rio de Janeiro and graduating with highest honors from the law school there in 1916. In the meantime he had spent 1913 and 1914 in Europe; besides visiting several countries, he attended the École des Hautes Études Sociales in Paris.

After becoming a member of the bar, Senhor Aranha returned to his native State to practice law, and started his political career with his election as mayor of Alegrete. In 1927 he was elected to the State Legislature, and soon thereafter went to Rio de Janeiro to represent his State in the Federal Chamber of Deputies. The following year,

however, he resigned to accept the office of Secretary of State of Rio Grande do Sul, of which Dr. Getulio Vargas, now President of Brazil, was then governor.

When Dr. Vargas became head of the Provisional Government, Senhor Aranha was appointed Minister of Justice (Attorney General) and two years later Minister of Finance. He has a sound and thorough knowledge of all phases of the economic and financial condition of Brazil, which will be highly appreciated in the approaching negotiation of a reciprocal trade treaty between his country and the United States.

The Ambassador takes his seat as the Brazilian representative on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



GLIMPSES OF SOME SOUTH AMERICAN CAPITALS¹

By JENNIE ERSKINE MURRAY

RIO DE JANEIRO is incomparable. I have never seen the harbor of Sydney with which I have heard it compared, but I have seen Naples, and although I have spent long hours watching the white smoke of Vesuvius rise into the sky of Mediterranean blue, and have followed the sweeping curve of shore line, as the blue of the bay became opalescent in the sunset, and although in my love for Naples, I too will name it in the same breath with Rio de Janeiro, still I say Rio de Janeiro is incomparable.

It is a dream city, a city of mountains and sea, and mountains that rise from the midst of the sea. It is a city overflowing with flowers, spreading everywhere, high on the trees, heavy on the walls. You cannot say that it is one lovely mountain or one lovely mountain range. You cannot say that it is one graceful curve of shore line or one lovely stretch of blue water. You cannot say that any one beauty of the earth's beautiful forms and features and colors gives Rio de Janeiro her loveliness. It is all lovely forms and features and colors combined, repeated from every point of view with the variety with which a theme is worked into a great unusual symphony. Think of all the beautiful places where you have ever been and put them all together—mountains, ocean, beaches, tropical trees ranged in avenues of palms or groves of eucalyptus, old narrow streets with the quaintness of long ago centuries, broad avenues where parks of trees and flowers, statues and fountains, separate four lines of automobiles following in gay procession the curves of the successive bays, homes whose gayety of architecture is in keeping with the gayety of their gardens, and the tropical sky over all, dazzling blue through the day and of incomparable colors that enflame mountains and sea and sky as the sun sets beyond the mountain piles when the day is ending. The water, too, becomes aflame and the pink glow lingers on mountain and sky until, on a moonlight night, before that glow can fade, a silver sheen blends with the pink and gradually all color disappears and the night is bright with moonlight and dartling water.

¹ See also "Between South American Cities", BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, January 1934, and "See South America", BULLETIN for June 1934, by the same author.



A MODERN NOTE IN RIO.

A doorway of the Touring Club of Brazil frames this unusual view of the skyscraper home of "A Noite", one of Rio's popular dailies.

VICTORIA REGIA, RIO DE JANEIRO.

Not only the famous lily of the Amazon, the Victoria Regia, but other tropical plants have been tamed in the confines of the Botanical Garden.



I should like to linger long describing the beauties of Rio de Janeiro. I should like to tell of the harbor lighted by the sunrise just after the lights of the city, that extend like chains of gold beads around the sweeping curves, have gone out. The truncated form of Gavea stands as a mighty guard, the organ pipes of the Organ Mountains rise on the other side, and in clear outline the Finger of God points from earth to Heaven. Mountain domes and mountain peaks,—the highest, Corcovado, lifts on high the figure of Christ-Redeemer, extending above the city, and above the world, the everlasting arms.²

I wish I could reproduce for you the ever increasing magnificence of a sunset trip to Pão de Assucar, the Sugar Loaf, that island mass of granite, a sheer, perpendicular rise of twelve hundred feet looming above you as your boat skirts it on entering the harbor and which you reach only by a car that swings on a cable stretched across the water. A lovely trip, too, is the one to Tijuca, with pleasant homes climbing its slopes where, from great heights, between trees where cleared spaces in the heavy growth make them serve as frames for a picture, you look out upon enchanting views of banana plantations and jungle-like forests, and beyond, to the distant city, ocean and far-away mountains. And a thrilling trip is the one to Petropolis over an automobile road that makes a daring ascent, from one dizzy cliff on to a higher one, until it reaches this summer resort city where a Brazilian emperor lies buried.

Loveliness is omnipresent in Rio de Janeiro. I wish I could tell you of the parks and the palaces, now museums, of the old Portuguese library, of the residential streets, of the Botanical Gardens, of the markets, especially the flower market. I would that I could bring back from the past the throngs that have come and gone in the ever crowded Rua Ouvidor, that narrow street along which men walked when they had cases requiring the decision of a judge, thirty years before the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock. I should like to walk with you along the gayest of modern thoroughfares, the Avenida Rio Branco, with its office buildings, clubhouses and hotels, its lively traffic, its people sitting at street café tables, its picturesque pedestrians, the Negro women carrying their flat baskets of fruit on their heads, its shops, displaying jewels and flowers, butterfly-wing ornaments, and souvenirs of inlaid wood. I should like to walk down this gay, tree-shaded street with you to the end, to the Opera House and the Monroe Palace, and then I should like to continue on along the Beira Mar, along the esplanade of black and white mosaic, to follow the beaches, Copacabana, Ipanema, past the country club, past the twin peaks of Leblon, then Gavea, and on to the great new highway, the Niemeyer Drive, which some day, they say, will follow the ocean all the way to Paraguay. But I cannot. Beauty—too lovely. Immensity—too great.

² See illustration, p. 790.



AVENIDA 18 DE JULIO AT PLAZA DE LA LIBERTAD, MONTEVIDEO.

Along Montevideo's main street, Avenida 18 de Julio, are concentrated many of the fine office buildings and commercial establishments.



THE WAITING ROOM OF THE CAPITOL, MONTEVIDEO.

Opening from this sumptuous hall, or, as it is generally known, the "Salón de los Pasos Perdidos", are the halls of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. In the construction and embellishment of the Capitol a wide variety of native marbles was utilized.

Buenos Aires is the largest city in South America, the largest in the Southern Hemisphere and, according to Van Loon's *Geography*, it ranks seventh in size among the cities of the world. It is a city of elegance and dignity, the streets, parks, and buildings made according to plans that, as they are now being carried out, necessitate the reclaiming of land from the mouth of the river and removal of the old city that was begun in 1580. Were I to tell of all that may be seen and enjoyed in these South American capitals, I would then have the book that I said I would not write. Before reaching Buenos Aires, I had stopped for about ten hours, while my Munson liner was in the port, at the city of Montevideo. In all the South American capitals, the buildings where the laws of the nation are made are of classic grandeur, built and furnished in a style that is in keeping with the dignity of a nation. The Senate Chamber and the Chamber of Deputies are invariably richly carpeted and richly tapestried. The furniture is of beautiful native wood. Ceilings and chandeliers are remarkable for their artistry. Corridors with columns and tiles of native material and workmanship, stairways and entrance ways, are of impressive magnificence. The senators' dining room in the capitol of Buenos Aires is one where a prince might entertain his guests. The large table of rich mahogany, covered with cloth of rich linen and heavy lace, napkins of like quality, leather upholstered armchairs, fine porcelain and fine glass: all the refinements that contribute to the art of dining, are enjoyed by the senators of Argentina when they gather for sociability in another salon of the same building, one that was furnished by a Spanish princess after she had made a visit to their country. In this room are portraits and other paintings, and restful furniture of great magnificence. The North American is proud to find among the portraits one of Sarmiento, who came to the United States when Horace Mann was developing educational reform in our country, and who went back to his own country to put into effect an educational system founded on the ideas of our own great teacher.

In these South American cities not only are the capitols imposing. Always there are many public buildings of striking magnificence and many are the homes of imposing beauty, and should the visitor have the good fortune to be admitted to one, he would find quiet, assured elegance and richness within. Any tourist may enjoy one of these homes of wealth, its architecture, furniture, and art collections, by visiting the Museo Isaac Fernández Blanco in Buenos Aires, Victoria 1420. Among the many works of art is a collection of maté bowls of gold and silver, wrought with a craftsmanship that reminds one of Cellini. This home was bequeathed to the city by its owner, that the beauty of its contents might be enjoyed by the public. The building most renowned for its magnificence is that of the Jockey Club in Buenos Aires and the most beautiful hall in any public building is the

Hall of the Lost Footsteps in the capitol of Montevideo. This is best seen from its gallery, where the harmonious proportion of its simple lines and the combinations of colors of the native marbles are most striking in their effect. It was built in memory of those whose footsteps are heard no more, a silent, uninscribed tribute to those who no longer come and go, but who in life trod the paths of service.

It was about the middle of August when I was in Montevideo and Buenos Aires. That corresponds in time of year to our mid-February. These cities lie as far south as a place on the coast of North Carolina near Cape Lookout lies north. In these South American cities, frost is almost unknown and flowers bloom all the year. Roses were not yet to be seen in the *Rosario* in Buenos Aires but it must be a great expanse of color when summer comes. The grass and trees were green in the parks and peach trees were in blossom in the gardens. But it was cold. It was desperately cold as we rode in an open taxi along the ocean front where people of Montevideo have their summer homes and where there was a great handsome hotel empty of guests at that time of year. Fortunately, I had on a warm woolen suit and over this a warm winter coat but still I shivered. I wore that winter coat much of the time between landing in Montevideo and sailing for home from Callao. The hotels, except in the Torrid Zone, have steam heat, but when the winter winds of August blow against the windows, you wish that this steam heat were not a recent innovation which is not yet used in full vigor.

At the race track in Buenos Aires is a heating contrivance never seen before. In the paddocks are huge cylinders in which coals are burning. You may come down from your seat on the grandstand and get warm at these outdoor stoves. But probably the sun will be shining and you will stay on the stand watching the races, the horses and people all taking life joyously. You will be told that this is the most beautiful race track in the world. As you look out over its smooth course encircling a field of green where artificial lakes are connected by arched bridges, you will agree that none could be more beautiful. But when you go to Santiago, and after you have passed through the fine clubhouse you step out on the grandstand, and see the circle of the course paralleled in the sky by a circle of snow-covered mountains, you will say that this is the loveliest place where a sportsman ever played.

No one can recall a visit to Buenos Aires without thinking of its great newspaper *La Prensa*. It occupies one of the imposing buildings on the Avenida de Mayo and visitors are welcome. The great interest for the visitor is not so much in the making of a newspaper as in the provisions made in the building for the public that it serves. The owners feel that the money that comes from the public should be used



Courtesy of the Munson Steamship Line.

COLUMBUS MONUMENT IN BUENOS AIRES.

Some of the beauty and charm of the Argentine capital is the result of the numerous plazas and parks which have been artistically developed throughout the city.

AVENIDA DE MAYO, BUENOS AIRES.

Buenos Aires, one of the great cities of the world and the largest of the Southern Hemisphere, impresses the visitor as a city of elegance and dignity.



for the good of the public. As always in these buildings, elegance and luxury are evident, here seen in the music salon, an imitation in decoration and furniture of one of the galleries of Versailles. In this salon are given exhibitions by pupils pursuing a course for a bachelor's degree in music given at the expense of *La Prensa* to young people of talent. The paper provides not only for the artistic gratification of the public. People may also go there to have their teeth filled, or to consult a lawyer, or to receive almost any assistance at the expense of the paper. The owners of *La Prensa* consider that the newspaper serves the public, the newspaper depends upon the public, and the newspaper therefore provides for the needs of the public. Would it not solve many of the problems of our times if this principle were accepted more widely in the business world?

The cemeteries of Buenos Aires are of unusual interest. They are reminders of the Campo Santo of Genoa or Milan, but they are even more completely built of stone. A bare spot of ground is hardly to be seen. One stone vault is built closely against the other on each side of narrow stone sidewalks. These vaults are houses where the dead are laid to rest and they are carefully tended by members of the family. Pictures and busts of the departed are enshrined. Altars are provided with flowers, candles, and crucifixes. These buildings are of great variety of design of marble and granite, and the sculpturing is the work of artists. I chanced to be present when a funeral was taking place. I kept aloof, not only because I respected the privacy of the mourners, but because burial services are attended only by men.

No description of Buenos Aires should fail to mention the Teatro Colón. In this beautiful opera house I heard Lily Pons sing in a farewell performance of *The Barber of Seville*, and she received an enthusiastic ovation from the audience that filled all the seats and standing room of the orchestra, all the seats in the great circle of boxes and in the tier on tier of loges that formed a high circular wall, crowded with intent listeners. No description should omit the numerous statues, many of them most beautiful and imposing, the most interesting one being that of Columbus on the Paseo Colón. The visitor should not fail to see the zoological gardens, especially in Buenos Aires, the favorite place for children and of course for parents with children. But I cannot tell of all the enjoyments that await the traveller in these cities. The same interesting features are repeated again and again. Always there are botanical gardens, zoological gardens, flower markets and other markets, great artistic parks, broad avenues, wide plazas, an art gallery, at least one imposing library, club buildings, university buildings, museums, an opera house, newspaper buildings, bank buildings. In all of them too, are buildings erected by American companies. Signs in the street or

electric revolving lights at night, displays in windows, or signs aloft above the buildings, tell of Firestone tires, Ford cars, Singer sewing machines, Waterman fountain pens, "His Master's Voice", Elizabeth Arden, National City Bank, Bank of Boston, All-American Cables—a long list of our enterprises might be named that have establishments or agents in all these cities. Banks representing all nations are there—British, German, French, Italian—and people from all these countries, and oriental countries, are conducting many kinds of business. Ours is the country that furnishes the "movies", or rather the "talkies", everywhere. Lines are spoken in English, captions given in the national language. Pictures of Janet Gaynor, Joan Crawford, Marie Dressler, Harold Lloyd, John Barrymore, and all the favorites greet us everywhere, and their names blaze across the streets. They have a strong hold on the hearts of South Americans. One young man in Valparaíso who could speak hardly more than enough English to tell me that the one place in the world he wanted most to visit was Hollywood, exclaimed wistfully, "Janet Gaynor and Joan Crawford, are American girls all like that?"



TRADE AGREEMENTS BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND LATIN AMERICA

By GUILLERMO A. SURO

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

A MAJOR measure in President Roosevelt's administration designed to promote a far-reaching revival of international trade went into effect with the enactment of the Trade Agreements Act authorizing the Executive to lower the tariff in reciprocity agreements with foreign nations. This is in line with the proposal for the reduction of trade barriers formulated by Secretary of State Hull at the Seventh International Conference of American States which was adopted as the basis of the economic, commercial, and tariff policy to be pursued by the Governments of the American Republics in their future relations with one another and with other nations of the world. Without neglecting unilateral and multilateral action the resolution adopted by the conference provides "that the Governments of the American Republics will promptly undertake . . . to reduce high trade barriers through the negotiation of comprehensive bilateral reciprocity treaties based upon mutual concessions." Carrying this proposal into effect means the adoption of a new tariff policy on the part of the United States radically different from the system of high protectionism long entrenched, despite the low tariff demanded, in the opinion of many economists, by the post-war creditor position of the country. Realizing that the former policy by narrowing the market for foreign commodities has made it difficult for foreign countries to obtain the means with which to purchase American products, a fact which from 1922 to 1930 was disguised by unrestricted foreign loans, the Government of the United States is ready to moderate these obstructions in exchange for a reduction in the restrictions imposed by other countries upon imports from the United States.

That the United States should assume a vigorous policy for the removal of trade barriers is natural since it has suffered a more serious contraction in its foreign trade than any other country and its stake in the restoration of world trade is therefore larger. Restricted by a universal network of barriers, the world's international trade between 1929 and 1933 has shrunk by about two-thirds in value and by 30 percent in volume. In competition with other countries the United States has been getting a diminishing share of this diminishing trade.

Whereas in 1929 it enjoyed 13.83 percent of the total trade of the world, in 1932 its share had fallen to 10.92 percent. Measured in terms of dollars the total exports of the United States fell from \$5,241,000,000 in 1929 to \$1,675,000,000 in 1933, while imports fell from \$4,399,000,000 to \$1,149,000,000. Since the United States normally exports between 55 and 60 percent of its cotton, 20 percent of its wheat, 40 percent of its tobacco, and 50 percent of its rice, and since many of its most important industries, manufacturing such products as machinery, automobiles and electrical equipment, are organized on such a scale that they normally produce far more than can be consumed in the home market, the necessity may be clearly seen for allowing a greater flow of imports in order to increase foreign purchasing power for these surpluses if, in the words of President Roosevelt, these industries are to be spared "the heart-breaking readjustments that must be necessary if the shrinkage of American foreign commerce remains permanent."

If foreign trade is essential to the United States it is a matter of life and death to the Latin American Republics, for their entire economic life revolves around the income derived from the sale of their products in foreign markets. The terrific decline in the value of their trade which has taken place since 1929 has brought about incalculable hardships. The trade of the United States with these countries, like that with the rest of the world, shows an unprecedented recession in value. Exports from the United States to the Latin American Republics fell from \$911,749,000 in 1929 to \$215,944,000 in 1933, and United States imports from Latin America fell from \$1,014,127,000 in 1929 to \$316,040,000 in 1933. Of the total Latin American imports from all countries the United States supplied about 39 percent in 1929 and 32 percent in 1932; of their total exports the United States took 34 percent in 1929 and 32 percent in 1932. The Latin American countries are important customers for American products such as machinery and tools, iron and steel, electrical goods, leather, chemicals, gasoline, automobiles, cement, hosiery, cotton manufactures, hardware, lard, flour and other agricultural and manufactured products. In turn they are the main source of supply of many of the imports of the United States. Thus: Ninety-four percent of the coffee imports of the United States comes from Brazil, Colombia, Venezuela, Mexico, and Guatemala. Cuba supplies 98 percent of the cane sugar imported from foreign countries. Central America, Mexico, Panama, Cuba, and Colombia supply 81 percent of the bananas, and Brazil, the Dominican Republic, Venezuela, and Ecuador 40 percent of the cacao. Ninety percent of the crude petroleum imports comes from Venezuela, Colombia, Mexico, Ecuador, and Peru. Ecuador and Brazil supply practically all the imports of tagua

nuts (vegetable ivory) and carnauba wax, respectively. Of United States imports of logwood, Haiti and Mexico supply 95 percent. From Paraguay and Argentina come all the quebracho wood and extraet; from Mexico comes all the guayule; from Brazil, Peru, Colombia, and Venezuela, 92 percent of the balata; from Cuba and the Dominican Republic, 77 percent of the imports of molasses; and from Argentina almost all of the casein and flaxseed imported.

Negotiations of reciprocal arrangements between many of these countries and the United States are already in an advanced stage. American business men are now presenting their views on trade agreements with Brazil, Haiti, Colombia, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras and Nicaragua. An agreement was signed with Cuba on August 24, which, however, stands in a separate category because of the exclusive preferential treatment which Cuba and the United States have always granted each other. This will not be the case in the negotiations with other countries. In the negotiations with Brazil, for example, the United States is not asking for preferential treatment. Although 20 years ago it secured this special favor, the United States terminated it about 11 years ago, of its own accord. This, the State Department says, "is an earnest of the spirit of friendly accommodation of interest and of mutual economic advantage with which the negotiations of these agreements will be undertaken with all countries."

THE TRADE AGREEMENTS ACT

The Act of June 12, 1934 empowers President Roosevelt to negotiate trade agreements with foreign governments to become effective by Presidential proclamation without further approval by Congress. This he may do "whenever he finds as a fact that any existing duties or other import restrictions of the United States or any foreign country are unduly burdening and restricting the foreign trade of the United States." In the process of negotiation the President is empowered to increase or reduce any existing duty by no more than 50 percent. There are, however, no limitations to the modifications he can make on any other import restrictions, i. e., "limitations, prohibitions, charges, and exactions other than duties, imposed on importation or imposed for the regulation of imports." He may not transfer any article between the dutiable and the free list but he can promise that "a particular article, if now on the free list, or if now dutiable at a given rate, shall remain dutiable at not exceeding that rate."¹ He may also promise "the continuance of existing customs or excise treatment of any article covered by any foreign trade agreement." The authority of the Executive to enter into these agreements terminates on June 12, 1937, three years from the date of passage of

¹ Report of House Ways and Means Committee.

the act. The duration of a trade agreement, however, may be indefinite, for although the act states that it is subject to termination at the end of not more than three years it also provides that if a trade agreement is not terminated then it will remain in force thereafter subject to termination upon six months' notice.

Dr. Claude T. Murchison, director of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, stated in a nation-wide radio address that the act was momentous for two reasons:

"In the first place, it represented the removal of tariff-making power entirely to the Executive branch of the Government. This means that the President, with the aid of the various Departments of Government, may proceed to a tariff-making policy which is not only free from partisan interference, but which is based upon a scientific analysis of economic facts.

"The legislation is momentous for still another reason. It assumes officially for the first time in American history that foreign trade is a two-way process. In all foreign-trade transactions, at least two countries are involved. The exports of the one necessarily become the imports of the other. Hitherto we have proceeded on the bland assumption that the promotion of export trade was a matter entirely independent of all considerations of our import trade. This led to two grave errors in national policy, the first being resort to artificial measures to expand exports, the second being the imposition of almost insuperable barriers to the purchase of goods from abroad."

The act itself acknowledges this fundamental but hitherto ignored principle when it states that the powers granted to the President are "for the purpose of expanding foreign markets for the products of the United States . . . by regulating the admission of foreign goods into the United States in accordance with the characteristics and needs of various branches of American production so that foreign markets will be made available to those branches of American production which require and are capable of developing such outlets by affording corresponding opportunities for foreign products in the United States."

To the two reasons adduced by Dr. Murchison we may add another: The nature of the trade agreements to be negotiated is not trade-diverting but trade-enlarging. A considerable proportion of the trade agreements that have been worked out during the last few years have been negotiated primarily with the object of maintaining or enlarging the trade between the particular contracting countries without regard to third countries, often through preferential quotas diverting the trade in particular commodities from the usual supplying sources. This criticism has been applied to many inter-European agreements entered into after the depression and to those between various parts of the British Empire negotiated

at the Ottawa Conference of 1932. They were not calculated to enlarge the general volume of world trade and their lack of success in reviving or increasing the aggregate of the international trade of the countries of Europe is attributed partly to the trade-diverting rather than trade-enlarging nature of many of the agreements.²

The act avoids this often criticized aspect of tariff bargaining by providing that all concessions with respect to duties and other import restrictions granted to one country will be applicable "to articles the growth, produce, or manufacture of all foreign countries." This unconditional most-favored-nation treatment will be granted to all countries as long as they do not discriminate against American commerce, the President being empowered to suspend the application of the concessions to any country because of discriminatory treatment or because of other acts or policies which in his opinion tend to defeat the purpose of the act—the expansion of trade.

This policy is in accordance with the resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States on economic, commercial, and tariff policy which reads, in part:

The subscribing governments declare that the principle of equality of treatment stands and must continue to stand as the basis of all acceptable commercial policy. Accordingly they undertake that whatever agreements they enter into shall include the most-favored-nation clause in its unconditional and unrestricted form, to be applied to all types of control of international trade, limited only by such exceptions as may be commonly recognized as legitimate, and they undertake that such agreements shall not introduce features which, while possibly providing an immediate advantage for the contracting parties, might react disadvantageously upon world trade as a whole.

Of course, in order to generalize to all countries the concessions made by two contracting countries for the reduction of duties or the moderation of restrictions, their mutual concessions must apply to products of particular interest to each other. "In bilateral bargaining with any country", recommended the Tariff Commission to the Senate, "the concessions granted by the United States should be confined generally to articles of which that country is a principal supplier of the United States." By confining the bargaining to articles of which the respective countries are the chief suppliers the scope of the negotiations is not reduced as much as may be imagined. The Tariff Commission reports:

An examination of the trade of the United States discloses hundreds of products which are imported predominantly from single countries. Frequently the bulk of the dutiable imports from a given country is composed of articles predominantly imported from that country. A recent tabulation shows that the United States dutiable imports in 1931 from 29 countries were composed to an extent of from 48 percent to 93 percent of articles of which each country respectively was the chief source of supply for the United States. These 29 countries supplied

² Cf. Henry Chalmers, "The Depression and Foreign Trade Barriers", in "The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science." Philadelphia, July 1934.

over 96 percent of our dutiable imports, so that it can be readily seen that the list includes the more important trading nations. From the 29 the total dutiable imports were \$671,000,000, and taking for each country only those articles in which it was the leading source of imports to the United States, the value was found to be \$480,000,000, or 71 percent of the value of total dutiable imports from the 29 countries. Further, the trade statistics contain some headings which comprise classes of articles rather than individual articles, and in making reciprocity treaties these classifications might be subdivided (as is done in European treaties) so as to give a higher percentage of articles each of which is imported predominantly from a single foreign country.

MACHINERY FOR PROCEDURE UNDER THE ACT

The machinery established under the act for the negotiation of agreements is designed to insure that a scientific quality untainted by political considerations will prevail in the tariff making. An Executive Committee on Commercial Policy, headed by the Assistant Secretary of State, Hon. Francis B. Sayre, and consisting of representatives of the Departments of State, Commerce, Agriculture, and the Treasury, of the Office of the Special Adviser to the President on Foreign Trade, of the Agricultural Adjustment Administration, of the National Recovery Administration, and of the Tariff Commission, shapes basic questions of policy and next to the President is the major controlling agency.

Functioning under the Policy Committee is the Committee on Foreign Trade Agreements, likewise composed of representatives of the various departments of Government and set up "to arrange for such general economic studies as may be deemed necessary in connection with the reciprocity program, as well as studies relating to particular negotiations; to advise in selecting the countries for negotiations; and in general to coordinate the work of the governmental agencies concerned."³ Under this committee function special and temporary committees of experts, one for each country with which negotiations are initiated, in charge of the detailed work connected with the drafting of foreign trade agreements and the carrying on of preliminary technical discussions with the experts of foreign governments.

The Committee for Reciprocity Information, or hearings committee, as it is popularly called, also functions under the supervision of the Policy Committee and is in charge of receiving the views of interested persons. Like that of the other two permanent committees, its membership is drawn from the various departments of the Government.

The task that is being accomplished by these committees is a difficult one. The choice of countries and the choice of commodities requires painstaking study and care to determine what American commodities have the greatest market possibilities in particular countries and to

³ Release, Dept. of State, June 29, 1934.

estimate the increase in exports which will follow a given decline in the tariff rates of the foreign country. Likewise attention has to be given to the economic effects in the United States of a reduction in the existing tariff of each commodity concerned and how far each commodity constitutes a chief source of supply from the foreign country under consideration. Moreover, other factors besides tariff rates must be taken into consideration. Exchange controls, quotas, sanitary regulations and other barriers have contributed more than duties to the restriction of imports and the shrinkage of world trade. In the process of trade revival no bilateral agreement can be successful that does not include provisions regulating recourse to these import restrictions.

THE AGREEMENT WITH CUBA

The agreement signed with Cuba on August 24, 1934, was the first to be negotiated under the Trade Agreements Act. The Department of State, however, was quick to state that, as has been said before, the treaty stands, for certain reasons, in a class by itself:

Although this agreement has been concluded under the Trade Agreements Act of June 12, 1934, it stands, nevertheless, in a separate category. Geographical propinquity and historical considerations have given rise to especially close economic relationships between the United States and Cuba. Reciprocity with Cuba still "is a proposition that stands entirely alone." The Commercial Convention of 1902 took cognizance of these special considerations in establishing preferential rates of duty for the products of each country when entering the other country.

The present agreement continues this special customs treatment. Each country, in addition to pledging reduced rates of duty for certain products of special interest to the other, grants exclusive and preferential reductions in duty. Regardless of what rates Cuba may establish hereafter on products of third countries, American products entering Cuba will be accorded reductions from such rates, varying from 20 to 60 percent. In the same way, the United States will continue to grant certain percentages of preference to Cuban products. With no other country does the United States have this type of arrangement. The mutual concessions accorded under this agreement, of course, are not generalized to third countries on the basis of most-favored-nation treaties.

The Cuban agreement aims to restore the declining trade between the two countries by reducing the trade barriers which, in combination with other factors, have so seriously obstructed the flow of goods. The once flourishing trade of the United States with Cuba reached its height in 1924. In that year Cuba was the sixth best customer for American goods, buying \$191,571,000 worth. Cuban purchases in the American market last year were only a fraction of this amount—\$22,674,000. From the sixth place Cuba dropped to the sixteenth as a customer of the United States. This decline was in almost exact ratio to the decrease in United States purchases of Cuban products. In 1924 Cuba sold to the United States \$362,265,000 worth of goods;

in 1933 Cuban exports to this country amounted to only \$57,112,000. "This catastrophic fall in trade", said the State Department, "has taken its toll. In Cuba, it has meant a serious lowering of the standard of living, undernourishment and actual starvation among both agricultural and industrial workers, and stagnation of commercial life. In the United States it has meant that farmers have been deprived of an outlet for their production, and that workers in certain branches of industry have suffered reduced wages and loss of employment."

Sugar has been and is the basis of the Cuban economic structure, even with the recent diversification of agricultural production. The quantity of sugar purchased by the United States from Cuba in 1924 was 3,163,054 short tons and until 1929, when imports amounted to 3,376,345 short tons, it remained fairly steady. During that period, however, the price of raw sugar dropped from 4 to 2 cents a pound, and the dollar returns to Cuba fell precipitously from \$317,519,000 in 1924 to \$137,519,000 in 1929. Another serious blow to the industry, however, was dealt by the United States Tariff Act of 1930, which increased the rate of duty on Cuban sugar from 1.76 cents to 2 cents a pound. Cuban sugar exports to the United States dropped to 1,495,992 short tons in 1933 and the income from sugar sales to \$39,748,000. This reduction of Cuban sugar income to 30 percent of what it was in 1929 and 12 percent of the 1924 figure obliged Cuba to produce at home many of the products which it had previously imported from the United States. From 1927 to 1932 Cuban duties were successively increased on a wide range of commodities in order to foster domestic agriculture and industry. Trade was further restricted by consumption taxes and custom surtaxes and surcharges.

On this policy the State Department said:

While the tariff policy of the Cuban Government undoubtedly stimulated production of certain commodities in Cuba, such as dairy products, corn, eggs, jerked beef, paint, knit goods, paper, leather and shoes and a few other simple manufactures, high duties, which contributed to high prices, in conjunction with the decreased purchasing power of the people, resulted in diminished importation and consumption. Domestic production was inadequate in the case of most commodities to meet demand. Imported goods, therefore, were necessary, but because of the increased duties, they were too high priced for the Cuban consumer, who with diminished income could pay for fewer goods. Furthermore, the employment furnished by the few industries which developed behind the Cuban tariff wall was wholly insufficient to have any appreciable effect on the heavy unemployment occasioned by the decline in the sugar industry.

Previous to the signing of the agreement and upon the recommendation of the Tariff Commission, President Roosevelt issued a proclamation on May 9, 1934, reducing the duty on Cuban sugar from 2 cents to 1½ cents a pound; and under the recently enacted Costigan-Jones Act, the import quota allotted to Cuba, although greatly below the

post-war average, is nevertheless higher than shipments in either 1932 or 1933. The new agreement goes further in restoring Cuban purchasing power and reduces the duty on Cuban raw sugar (96°) from one and one-half cents to nine-tenths of a cent a pound. "This concession," the State Department said, "should have an immediate beneficial effect on the entire Cuban economic structure, which is built primarily around the sugar industry. Not only will it affect agricultural life, restoring employment on a wide scale to the agricultural population, but it will stimulate business conditions generally." Other valuable concessions have been granted to Cuba on its rum, tobacco, and off-season fruits and vegetables, which, together with sugar, make up well over 90 percent of the island's exports to the United States. In return for them Cuba has granted substantial advantages to a wide range of American agricultural and industrial products. Among the products which have been granted concessions are lard, salt and smoked meats, vegetable oils, wheat flour, rice, potatoes, onions, feedstuffs, and lumber, which, upon their importation into Cuba, will receive substantial advantages in the form of increased preferences and/or reduced customs duties. In the field of manufactured products, Cuba's import-duty concessions comprise a wide range of articles, including iron and steel products, hardware, textiles (especially rayon goods), automobiles (including accessories and tires), machinery in general, paper and cardboard, paints and varnishes, tennis shoes, incandescent lamps and electrical equipment in general, and others too numerous to mention.

Furthermore, the agreement provides for the continuance of free entry for all products of either country now admitted free of duty into either country; for national and most-favored-nation treatment with respect to internal taxation, forbidding the increase of internal taxes on all articles with a fixed maximum duty. It also provides that subject to certain recognized exceptions no quantitative restrictions may be imposed on articles on which custom concessions are granted (among the exceptions is one permitting import restrictions on products, the domestic production of which is controlled, as by the United States sugar- and tobacco-adjustment programs); prohibits the raising of duties because of currency depreciation unless this depreciation is more than 10 percent; and prevents the establishment of forms of exchange control which would nullify the value of the duty concessions.

Favorable results to American producers from these concessions were reported immediately after the agreement became effective on September 3, 1934.⁴ The Hon. Jefferson Caffery, American Ambassador to Cuba, informed the State Department that one million pounds

⁴ Release, Dept. of State, Sept. 5, 1934.

of lard in the Habana customs house were waiting to be cleared as soon as the treaty came into force and that orders had been placed for another million pounds. As soon as the agreement was proclaimed shipments were on the way for over one million pounds of pickled and salt meats, and orders were placed for 250,000 pounds of cotton-seed oil and five thousand automobile tires. Substantial orders were also reported to have been placed for automobiles, trucks, paper, cardboard, potatoes, wheat, rayon fabrics, pork products, semolina, onions, feedstuffs, and cigarettes. Indicative of the effect of the reduction of the Cuban duties on American automobiles from 24 percent to 12 percent ad valorem for cars with a factory list price of less than \$750 was the report that 164 cars were waiting to be cleared from the Habana customs house on the effective date of the agreement.





Pan American Airways photograph.

RIO DE JANEIRO, BRAZIL.

From any point, the matchless beauty of Rio de Janeiro is evident. This impressive view from an air liner of a portion of the city includes both the famous peaks of Sugar Loaf and Corcovado, the latter with its huge surmounting statue of Christ the Redeemer.

SIMPLIFICATION OF AIRPORT FORMALITIES AND CUSTOMS PROCEDURE AS AN AID TO INTER-AMERICAN AIR COMMERCE

By LELAND HYZER

Attorney at Law

THE Seventh International Conference of American States held at Montevideo in December 1933, passed a resolution that:

Within the shortest possible time, and before the Commercial Conference of Buenos Aires, there be studied by a Commission of Experts to be constituted in the manner and at the place to be decided by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, the means of still further accelerating inter-American aviation, by the establishment of a continuous line of Radio Stations, Beacons and Aerodromes, along the line of existing routes and others that may be considered desirable, and to determine what additional methods may be devised to bring about more rapid inter-American aerial communication facilities.

The desired objective of the Commission, as set forth in the resolution, is the consideration of all means of accelerating inter-American aviation. Radio stations, beacons and aerodromes are specifically mentioned, for these aids to air navigation are recognized requirements for security and facility in the successful operation of air transportation. Through these instrumentalities the distance between the most remote countries, measured in time, will be greatly reduced. Continuous service throughout day and night can then be put in operation. The distance between Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires, measured again in time, could be reduced from a present schedule of 30 hours and 15 minutes to 15 hours. The time distance between Miami, Florida, and Lima, Peru, through Panama, could perhaps be reduced from the present schedule of 85 hours and 55 minutes to 40 or 45 hours. The cooperation of the American Republics to bring about such services throughout their territory is an objective which can be realized by means of the study and recommendation of the Committee of Experts.

There is, however, another problem which is closely related to the operation of air transportation in international commerce. With all the advantages to be realized from the mechanical facilities which may be recommended and actually installed, rapid inter-American aerial communication will continue to be hampered so long as the existing customs, health, police and other formalities now required for the

entrance and clearance of airships engaged in the transportation of passengers and express are allowed to remain.

The concluding clause of the above resolution providing for the appointment of the Commission, after specifically mentioning the mechanical features, gives the Commission power "*to determine what additional methods may be devised to bring about more rapid aerial communication facilities.*" Under the authority of this last clause, such a Commission of experts should include in its program a consideration of the simplification of the procedure for the entrance and clearance of aircraft as an additional method of bringing about more rapid inter-American aerial communication.

The importance of the subject has already been recognized by the member countries of the Pan American Union, for the Draft Convention formulated by the Pan American Commission on Customs Procedure and Port Formalities which met at Washington in November 1929 contains the following provision:

To facilitate and promote aerial commerce and intercourse between the American States, the high contracting parties undertake to procure the enactment of laws, or the promulgation of administrative regulations, wherever necessary, to effect the following practices at airports and aerodromes:

(1) That aerodromes and airports officially recognized by the respective countries shall carry, in those cases not now provided for by the laws of each nation, the following requisites:

The designation of customs officials of a permanent character, adequate facilities for the necessary operations which are involved in the reception and dispatch of aircraft, as well as the designation of authorities who shall have under their charge everything pertaining to the policing, inspection, and prompt dispatch of mail, passengers, crew, baggage, and merchandise transported.

(2) That the dispatch of aircraft and of merchandise and baggage conducted by aircraft be given preferential consideration over all others; and that mail and postal packages be given preference in shipment over merchandise.

(3) That the documentation covering aircraft, passengers, and merchandise, transported by air, be reduced to a single document in which there shall be declared in brief and concise form the data which legislation to be enacted on the subject may indicate.

(4) That the transit of baggage and merchandise through the countries, parties to this convention shall be facilitated by guarantees which may be given by aerial carriers to assume responsibility for amounts chargeable thereon in cases where the baggage or merchandise remains in the country of transit.

(5) That importation of merchandise by aerial routes be permitted without the necessity of consular invoice when the value thereof does not exceed \$100.

(6) That officially recognized aerial carriers be permitted to return, upon proper identification, to the countries of origin, the merchandise which may not have been received by the consignee; provided that this merchandise be deposited by the aerial carrier in general bonded warehouses or in other warehouses established for this purpose by the fiscal authorities, in accordance with existing legislation or legislation which may be hereafter adopted by the respective countries.

This convention remains merely a proposal, for it has not been signed or ratified.



Courtesy of Pan American Airways.

ENTRANCE TO HABANA HARBOR.

Air travel between the United States and Latin America began with the establishment of regular service between Miami and Habana. While inter-American aviation has increased steadily ever since, means are being taken to accelerate its growth and speed.

Rules, regulations, and requirements for the import and export of goods and the emigration and immigration of persons among nations were instituted with the commencement of this traffic, and have continued through the evolution of various types of water craft. With the advent of aircraft into the field of foreign commerce, carrying merchandise and passengers, it was perhaps natural, in the first instance, to apply to commerce by air the procedure in connection with water commerce with which each country was familiar. The pattern of this old procedure, however, was not cut to fit the needs of the new form of transportation.

An examination has been made of the regulations pertaining to Customs Procedure and Port Formalities and governing the operation of aircraft engaged in foreign commerce as now in force in the various countries of the Pan American Union. An analysis and comparison of the requirements of the respective countries discloses some variation in procedure. The following list is typical of the documents which each

aircraft pilot must have and present for the entry and clearance of his ship, cargo, and passengers:

1. Sanitary certificate showing that in the port of departure there is no communicable disease, certified by the local consul of the country to which the ship is destined.
2. A crew list showing the names, nationality, age, and occupation of the individuals comprising the crew, sworn to by the pilot and certified by the consul.
3. Consular invoice on each shipment exceeding a stated value, certified by the consul.
4. Cargo manifest, certified by the pilot and viséd by the consul.
5. A list of passengers, showing their names, ages, sex, status and nationality, profession, and destination, signed by the pilot of the ship and certified by the consul.
6. A baggage declaration for each passenger.

For one journey, therefore, the first five of the above documents must be signed and certified by the consul of the country of destination before the ship is entitled to entry.

Some countries require additional papers; some countries require fewer. A varied number of copies of such documents is required.

The following list of requirements of one country may be cited as an example of the distribution of copies:

Health Department:

- One copy crew list.
- One copy passenger list.
- Vaccination certificate from each passenger.

Customs Department:

- Six copies manifest from each port of call.
- One copy negative manifest from each port of call where no cargo taken.
- One copy crew list.
- One copy passenger list.
- One copy baggage declaration for each passenger.

Police Department:

- One copy crew list.
- One copy passenger list.

On air lines where a single ship passes through more than one country on its route from the port of origin to the port of destination and when cargo and passengers are taken on en route, the same set of documents is required for the port of entry of each country. With the increasing size and speed of aircraft, it will be the practice for ships to operate over more extensive routes. Under existing requirements, the matter of entrance documents will become increasingly complicated.

Over a route from Miami, Fla., to Cienfuegos, Cuba, Kingston, Jamaica, Barranquilla, Colombia, and Cristobal, Canal Zone, an

airship carrying mail, passengers, and express, must have the following documents:

MIAMI

Clearance:

- United States port sanitary statements for Cienfuegos, Kingston, and Cristobal.
- Crew list for Cienfuegos.
- Crew list for Kingston.
- Declaration on delivery of letters for Kingston.
- Kingston cargo manifests.
- Single documents or consolidated document showing crew list, passenger list, items of express and stores, and sanitary conditions for Barranquilla.
- Canal Zone passenger list.

CIENFUEGOS

Entry:

- Port sanitary certificate from Miami.
- Crew list.
- Passenger lists.
- In the event of cargo, consular invoices and bills of lading.

Clearance:

- British bill of health.
- Passenger forms as specified under entry to Kingston and Cristobal.

KINGSTON

Entry:

- Port sanitary statement from Miami.
- British bill of health from Cienfuegos.
- Crew list from Miami.
- Declaration on delivery of letters from Miami.
- British passenger list.
- Cargo report listing all cargo.

Clearance:

- British certificate of clearance.
- Colombian "Single Document."

BARRANQUILLA

Entry:

- "Single document" showing crew list, passenger list, items of express and stores, and sanitary conditions from Miami and all ports of call en route.

Clearance:

- Colombian bill of health.
- Combination passenger and crew list.

CRISTOBAL

Entry:

- Port sanitary statement from Miami.
- Port clearance from last port.
- Passenger list.

Over the same route on a return journey from Cristobal to Miami, Florida, the same form of documents as set out above will be required

at Barranquilla, Kingston, and Cienfuegos. At Miami there would be required for entry into the United States the following documents:

Passenger lists showing passengers embarking at the port of origin and at each port of call, giving the name, age, occupation, nationality, sex, destination, and proof of citizenship.

Information sheet for each alien.

Baggage declaration for each passenger.

Inward manifest for cargo and passengers from port of origin and each port of call.

An example which may be cited as being typical of a continuous route through several countries will disclose the complication as to the number of copies of passenger lists alone. An airplane departing from Miami, Florida, bound for Cristobal, Canal Zone, carrying five passengers, one each for Habana, Cienfuegos, Kingston, Barranquilla, and Cristobal, must carry and present to the authorities at the respective ports the following number of passenger lists:

HABANA

Seven copies for the passenger disembarking and five copies for the remaining passengers in transit.

CIENFUEGOS

Seven copies for the passenger disembarking and five copies for the remaining passengers in transit.

KINGSTON

Four copies for the passenger disembarking in addition to two copies of the passenger's baggage declaration.

BARRANQUILLA

Nine copies for the passenger disembarking and in addition, one copy of the passenger's baggage declaration.

CRISTOBAL

Four copies for the passenger disembarking.

For the five passengers, 41 copies of the passenger list and three copies of the baggage declaration must be compiled and delivered at the four stops over the route. Each copy of the passenger list must be signed by the pilot of the airplane.

In the operation of air transportation systems engaged in foreign commerce as they now exist and as may be anticipated with planes of greater size and speed, there must be transfer of passengers and goods from one ship to another at division points of a single company or at transfer points with connecting carriers. Entrance requirements of some countries are now to the effect that the various documents as outlined above must be certified at the port of departure of the country last visited en route. It is apparent, then, that the required documents must be prepared and certified at the port of



Pan American Airways photograph.

THE BRAZILIAN CLIPPER.

This giant sky cruiser, constructed for the North-South American air service, started on her initial flight from Miami to Buenos Aires August 16. Four-motored, 68 feet long and with a wing spread of 114 feet, this airplane provides the most luxurious accommodations yet offered to air travelers between the Americas. Thirty-two passengers can be carried in addition to a crew of eight.

departure of each country en route before the passengers and cargo can proceed, and in some cases after the arrival of the ship. This of necessity occupies time. If the same ship is to continue on the route it must be held up pending the compiling and certification of papers. If another ship continues on the route or if the passage is to continue on a connecting carrier, the departure of that ship must be held up awaiting the completion of documents; or the shipment and passengers must await the departure of the next ship proceeding over the route. This delay may be a matter of hours or days. The demand of commerce is rapid, uninterrupted passage. The advantage of speed in flight or transit should not be lost by delays in port.

It is not deemed necessary to go further into detail by way of examples to establish evidence of the complicated systems of procedure for the entry and clearance of aircraft in international commerce. The fiscal requirements of countries may make necessary some form of documentation with respect to the commerce of goods, wares, merchandise, and passengers. The need is for simplification.

Some of the European air carriers have adopted by agreement with the countries through which they operate a single document which embodies all the information formerly contained in a number of documents.

In the Americas, the advantage of simplified clearance procedure has now been recognized by several nations. Argentina, by a presidential decree of November 16, 1931, adopted the single document clearance for aircraft under the name of *Declaración del Piloto*; this embodies all the documents of cargo, passengers, crew, etc., as well as a sanitary certificate. Chile and Uruguay have put into practice similar procedure. The Republic of Colombia, by a presidential decree in 1932, modified its general law with regard to customs and port formalities. As an example of the provisions of such decrees, that of Colombia is here set forth:

Aircraft proceeding from foreign ports, upon their descent in the first Colombian port, shall present a single document containing the following data: Name and number of the ship and company to which it belongs; number of the voyage; of the crew; names of the passengers; statement of goods transported by the aircraft and destined for the Colombian port. This document shall be signed by the pilot of the ship and it shall also contain the certificate of health signed by the medical official from the port of origin.

A "single document", as it is designated, patterned after that of the European carriers, has been adopted and now put in use in the form on the opposite page.

The information which is called for in the several documents in use under the old practice is all contained in the consolidated or single document. Only one visé by the Colombian consul at the port of departure is required. The pilot of the aircraft has but one document to sign. Experience may bring about revisions in the form, but the principle embodied in the *Documento Único* simplifying the entry and clearance of aircraft is in line with the objective of facilitating international commerce by air.

The Government of Brazil has also taken action with respect to the customs formalities in connection with international air commerce. The recent decree of May 30, 1934, greatly simplifies the procedure. Section 5 of the decree provides for the elimination of much of the documentation. Provision is made that:

The customs documents which should be on board aircraft employed in the transportation of passengers and goods are the following:

(a) *Consolidated List*, containing crew and passenger lists and number of express shipments carried, as per form no. 1;

(b) *Airwaybill*, which shall include, in addition to the information contained on the Shipping List, the value of the goods, freight paid, weight, port of origin, and other data required by the customhouse;

(c) *Shipping List*, giving the number of airwaybills, name of shipper and consignee, number and description of articles, designation, contents, weight, port of origin, and port of destination, as prescribed in form no. 2; and, finally,

NAME OF AIR CARRIER

Pilot's Declaration

Plane ----- Trip No. ----- Date -----

From ----- Bound for -----

CREW

Name in full	Class	Nationality	Civil status	Age

PASSENGERS

BAGGAGE

Name in full	Nationality	Age	Civil status	Profession	Point of Departure	Destination	Pieces	Weight

AIR EXPRESS

Marks	No. of parcels	Contents	Consignee's name and address	Value	Weight	
					Lbs.	Kgs.

STORES

Sanitary conditions -----

Pilot.



Pan American Airways photograph.

MOUNT MISTI AND AREQUIPA, PERU.

Arequipa, the picturesque southern metropolis of Peru at the foot of Mount Misti, is a regular stop on the air route along the west coast of South America.

(d) *Special Intransit List*, referring to the express shipments, and packages destined to foreign countries which are merely being carried through Brazil. This list will contain only the number of parcels, their weight, and ports of destination.

Any other documents required by the maritime transportation for passengers and cargo will be dispensed with by the customs authority.

Two forms have been prescribed which contain the information called for in section 5. The Consolidated List, or *Relação Geral*, mentioned in the decree is in much the same form as the *Documento Único*, shown above. The Shipping List, or *Guia de Embarque*, calls for a detailed list of packages.

It is of interest to compare the requirements of Brazil under the old law and those now provided for under the new decree. Under the old order, for entry into Brazil, an aircraft was required to carry:

A bill of health from every port of call.

Cargo manifest from each port of call, containing the description of all cargo taken aboard.

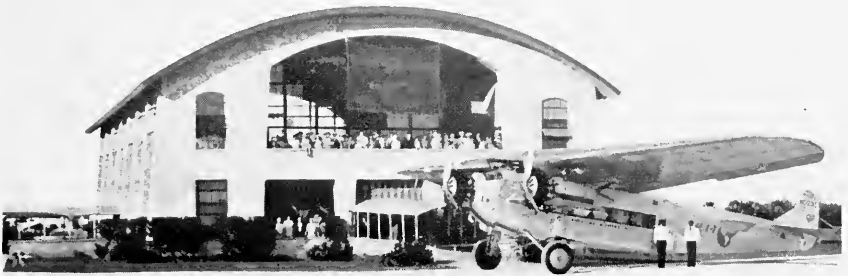
Negative manifest from every port of call when no cargo was taken on.

Passenger list.

Crew list.

The fact that several countries have already issued decrees or passed laws simplifying customs procedure, and others are, at the present time, giving consideration to the subject, indicates the beginning of the recognition of the distinction between international commerce by water and that by air. The port formalities which may have been satisfactory or sanctioned through long practice for the former are not applicable to the latter. Comparison of the procedure under the system of the "single document" with that of the system inherited from ocean commerce discloses how much inter-American aerial communication may be facilitated under the new and hampered under the continued use of the old.

A study by the Commission of Experts and the recommendation of a standard simplified procedure which will be approved and adopted by the governments of all of the 21 countries of the Pan American Union would be a great factor in "still further accelerating inter-American aviation."



SUMMARY OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL WORK IN THE AMERICAS 1931-1934

I. SOUTH AMERICA

By S. K. LOTHROP, Ph. D.

Peabody Museum of Archaeology and Ethnology, Cambridge, Mass.

AT the recent Congress of the Pan American Union held in Montevideo, the delegates requested that the BULLETIN resume publication of its summaries of South American archaeology, suspended owing to the death of Baron Nordenskiöld who had had the work in charge. In taking over this task one cannot but realize how great a part Nordenskiöld has taken in the development of knowledge of South American archaeology, not only because of the importance of his own contributions but because of the high standard of scholarship he set and the great influence of his enthusiasm upon all students of the subject. It is fortunate indeed that in his recently published *L'Archéologie du Bassin de L'Amazone* and *Origin of the Indian Civilizations of South America* he had brought his life's work to a climax.

The period under review has been unusually rich in publications which discuss previously known remains and describe new discoveries. The two volumes of the *Actas y Trabajos Científicos del XXVº Congreso Internacional de Americanistas* contain a mine of information and are illustrated and printed in a style of which the editors may well be proud. Among important new periodicals we should mention *Notas Preliminares del Museo de La Plata*, *Notas del Museo Etnográfico* (Buenos Aires), *Solar* (published by the Museo Antropológico y Etnográfico of Buenos Aires) and *Revista del Museo Nacional* (Lima). We must lament, however, the decease of *Indian Notes*, published by the Heye Foundation, which has not appeared since 1930.

In discussing the various activities which have taken place we begin with the south and proceed northward through Argentina. We then switch to the west coast, return to the eastern seaboard and finally cover the north, including Panama.

In Tierra del Fuego Mr. Junius Bird has carried out systematic excavations in the shell heaps of Beagle Channel, both on the main island and on Navarin Island to the south. He found that the ancient remains were not uniform from top to bottom and that the lower levels contained artifacts of different type from the historic culture.

He also learned that the Yahgan had acquired the use of the bow only a comparatively short time before the white settlement.

Further north, in Patagonia, Prof. Mileiades A. Vignati examined a number of sites near Santa Cruz, Lago Cardiel and Lago Argentina and has published an account of his work in *Notas Preliminares del Museo de La Plata*, tomo II. Near Santa Cruz he discovered an unrecorded type of burial marked on the surface by four concentric rings of river boulders. Beneath lay a male skeleton with the bones of a decapitated female placed over it. He also has illustrated a series of stone implements and pictographs. The latter include examples of the "red hand", apparently the southernmost occurrence of this widely spread symbol.

The Province of Buenos Aires has witnessed much archaeological activity. At Carmen de Patagones near the southern tip of the territory, Mr. Juan B. Daguerre has excavated several refuse heaps and recorded his work in the *Actas* of the XXVth Congress. He found flexed burials at a depth of one meter and refuse containing incised pottery, mortars, and chipped stone implements. Further north near Punta Rubia, Prof. Vignati (*Notas*, t. I) investigated a number of sites between the Río Colorado and the Río Negro. He found primary burials in a flexed position and disarticulated or partially articulated secondary burials. Most of the bones were covered with red paint.

Prof. Vignati believes that this is due not to stripping the flesh and painting the bones but to the transference of pigment from the painted hides in which the bodies were wrapped before burial. Other finds consisted of ear spools, labrets, chipped stone artifacts and incised pottery.

Prof. Vignati has also published (*Notas*, t. I) an analysis of pottery obtained near Punta Piedra at the north end of the Ensenada de Samborombón on the La Plata estuary. This ware is yellow in color and is tempered with sand and pulverized sherds which turn red when fired a second time. Incised designs show a marked resemblance to pottery from Lake Chascomús published many years ago by Prof. Outes. Prof. F. Márquez Miranda has brought out (*Actas*) a careful and well-illustrated analysis of a large amount of somewhat similar



FIGURE 1.—PAINTED JAR FROM SANTIAGO DEL ESTERO, ARGENTINA.

This vessel illustrates a new archaeological type from the southwestern border of the Chaco region.

material collected many years ago near the Laguna de Lobos by Ameghino and by Moreno.

Prof. Antonio Serrano has added to his long list of excavations a new site at Las Conchas on the western edge of the Province of Entre Ríos. He has described (*Actas*) the pottery in detail including both incised and geometric forms. An unusual find was a sheet of copper which upon analysis proved to contain 20 percent zinc, nearly 3 percent lead and a trace of tin. This is quite different in composition from the metal fragments found by Dr. L. M. Torres further south in



FIGURE 2.—BURIAL URN
FROM LA CANDELARIA,
PROVINCE OF
SALTA, ARGENTINA.

This vessel with the inverted bowl which serves as a lid measures five feet in height. Several bodies were sometimes found in these jars.

Courtesy of Stig Rydén.

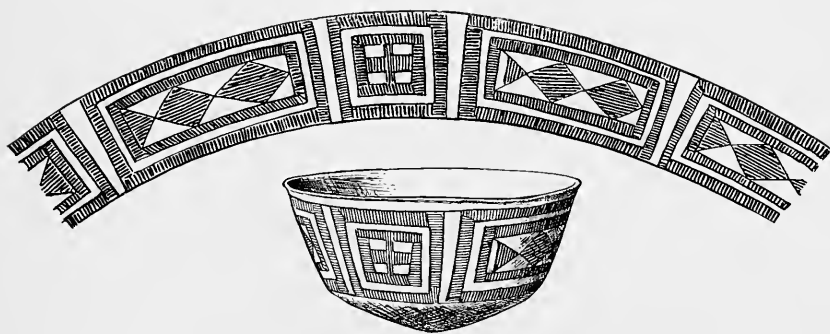
the Paraná delta. On the other hand, copper alloyed with a high percentage of zinc—in one case 30 percent—has been found in the Province of Mendoza where the Las Conchas specimen may have been manufactured.

Prof. Serrano writes that other excavations now in progress in the province of Santa Fé are yielding a new type of material which he hopes to describe in the near future.

The middle course of the Uruguay River in the northwestern part of the Republic of the same name has hitherto been *terra incognita* to the archaeologist. Prof. Serrano has excavated ten sites in this

region. He found that pottery and stone objects, while basically of the delta type, present local peculiarities, and he detects both Guaraní and Patagonian influences (*Exploraciones Arqueológicas en el Río Uruguay Medio*, Paraná, 1932). An interesting technical detail is the use of sponge tempering in pottery, a device which Linné has shown to be characteristic of the Amazon Valley.

In the Province of Santiago del Estero on the western edge of the Argentine Chaco, the brothers Emile and Duncan Wagner have been excavating for several years. They have found urn burials in mounds with pottery of a hitherto unknown type, related perhaps to Atacama and Diaguita remains to the northwest (fig. 1). A dozen or more newspaper accounts of these important discoveries have appeared, as well as recently a final publication which we have not yet seen. Prof. Imbelloni, in the *Actas* of the XXVth Congress, has described the skeletal remains.



Courtesy of Stig Rydén.

FIGURE 3.—INCISED BOWL FROM LA CANDELARIA, ARGENTINA.

This bowl was one of a number found inside burial urns at excavations in Salta Province.

Turning now to northwestern Argentina, we hear that Mr. Stig Rydén of the Göteborg Museum has carried out excavations in the Department of Candelaria, Province of Salta. He found both the bones of adults and infants buried in urns, which at times were of large size and contained several bodies (fig. 2). These sepulchral urns were grey-brown in color and were comparatively thin (ca. 0.5 cm). Decoration was confined to incised zigzag lines, with a few exceptions where relief details had been added to create anthropomorphic forms. As encountered in the ground, most urns were capped by bowls more stoutly walled than the urns themselves. At times there occurred within the urns grey-black bowls adorned with incised geometric patterns (fig. 3). In addition other types of pottery were found, including effigy vessels and shoe-shape jars. One small metal plaque was discovered. In interpreting this material Rydén points out that urn burial of adults in northwestern Argentina has been

accepted as evidence of Guaraní occupation or influence, but the present finds should be ascribed to some other people, probably the Lule-Tocote tribes who dwelt in Salta at the time of the Spanish conquest. A preliminary account of this material has appeared in the *Actas* of the XXVth Congress.

The Province of Jujuy at the northwestern tip of the Argentine Republic has yielded in the past ancient remains of great importance. Eduardo Casanova has described (*Actas*) two extensive aboriginal settlements in the Humahuaca Valley. Of these, the Pucará de Huichairas is a fortress situated on a hilltop below and across the valley from the famous Pucará de Tilcara, reputedly the richest site in northwestern Argentina. Within the walls are densely grouped houses where excavation yielded finds of Tilcara style. The other settlement, known as Coctaca, also was situated in the Humahuaca Valley. Here stood many agricultural terraces and house walls. Excavation revealed burials both in the corners of the houses and in adjacent circular tombs with stone walls. Children at times had been buried in urns. Funeral furnishings, which included no metal objects, were similar in type to remains from the neighboring Pucará de Humahuaca. Another article in the *Actas* by Santiago Gatto describes an interesting subterranean room at Coctaca, which he presumes from historical evidence to have served as a granary.

Dr. A. Métraux (*Jour. Soc. des Américanistes*, N. S., t. XXV) has recently reaffirmed his opinion that archaeological remains of northwestern Argentina, northern Chile, and southern Bolivia reflect mutual influences although the time is premature to state the part played by such groups as the Lípez, Humahuaca, Chíncha, Atacama, etc. In support of this contention, with which the writer is in full agreement, Métraux discusses pottery from a burial near Culpina in the Bolivian Department of Chuquisaca. This collection contains vessels of classical Inca shapes adorned not with Inca designs but with patterns found elsewhere in Bolivia, in the Argentine Province of Salta and in the Diaguita region in Chile.

A second Bolivian pottery collection described in the same paper was found at Guayabas in the Department of Santa Cruz. It shows relationship with ceramic types secured by Nordenskiöld in the Mojos region and at the same time indicates that Arawak influence had penetrated further south than hitherto believed.

South of the Diaguita region in central Chile, throughout the Aconcagua Valley, between Santiago and Valparaíso, there are small mounds locally known as *ancuviñas*. They contain pottery of distinctive style, examples of which have been published by Latcham and Oyarzún. Dr. Oyarzún has now described (*Actas*) more pieces of this pottery and has published excellent illustrations of the mounds themselves. Mr. A. Mettler (*Jour. Soc. des Américanistes*, N. S., t.

XXIV) has discussed a collection of these vessels excavated at Tapihue near Tiltil and has listed the complete contents of six mounds. These measured from 2 to 6 meters in diameter and 0.8 to 2 meters in height. The bodies were buried in a flexed position with heads to the east.

Turning northward now, we come to the area of high cultures which occupied the Bolivian plateau and most of Peru. This region has witnessed great archaeological activity in the past few years and many concrete additions to knowledge give promise for solution of general problems.



Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History.

FIGURE 4.—MONOLITHIC STATUE AT TIAHUANACO, BOLIVIA.

A recent discovery at the Tiahuanaco ruins was this large sandstone figure. At the right of the pit stands a small statue.

Dr. Wendell C. Bennett has conducted two archaeological expeditions on the Bolivian plateau for the American Museum of Natural History. In 1932 he examined some forty fortresses and villages of the Inca period located between SÚchez and Achacachi on the eastern border of Lake Titicaca. Construction in this region is of stone, and rooms up to 12 feet in width were roofed with corbel vaults. Far to the southeast of La Paz ancient sites were found representing the Inca (Inca-Llata), Chullpa (Illuri) and Tiahuanaco (Cochabamba) cultures. A preliminary account of these ruins has appeared in *Natural History*, April 1933.

The most important phase of the 1932 expedition was the excavation of 10 pits at the famous ruins of Tiahuanaco. In one of these a

large sandstone statue was discovered which measured 7.3 by 1+ meters and is estimated to weigh 18 tons (fig. 4). More significant from a technical point of view was the discovery of stratified refuse which indicates the division of Tiahuanaco pottery into Early, Classical, and Decadent Periods, all more ancient than Inca. Two of the pits yielded this series completely, while the others contained two or three phases of it. We outline briefly the ceramic types on which these divisions are based.

Early Tiahuanaco pottery contains 95 percent unpainted ware, mainly brown in color and roughly finished. The painted vessels are



Courtesy of American Museum of Natural History.

FIGURE 5.—HOUSE SITE AT CHIRIPA, LAKE TITICACA, BOLIVIA.

Unusual details of these walls, found beneath a mound, are the storage spaces between the outer and inner walls and the slot, apparently for a sliding door.

of buff-colored clay and the pigments used on them include red, white, yellow, brown, and black. Patterns usually consist of zigzag lines but occasionally strange animals are represented in color against a black background.

Classical Tiahuanaco remains at times were separated from those of earlier and later periods by ancient floors or ash beds. Vessels are covered with a well burnished red slip typically painted with black, white, and yellow, but with the occasional addition of grey and brown. While geometric patterns are common, much more typical are stylized condor, puma, or human figures evenly spaced around the outer walls of the vessel.

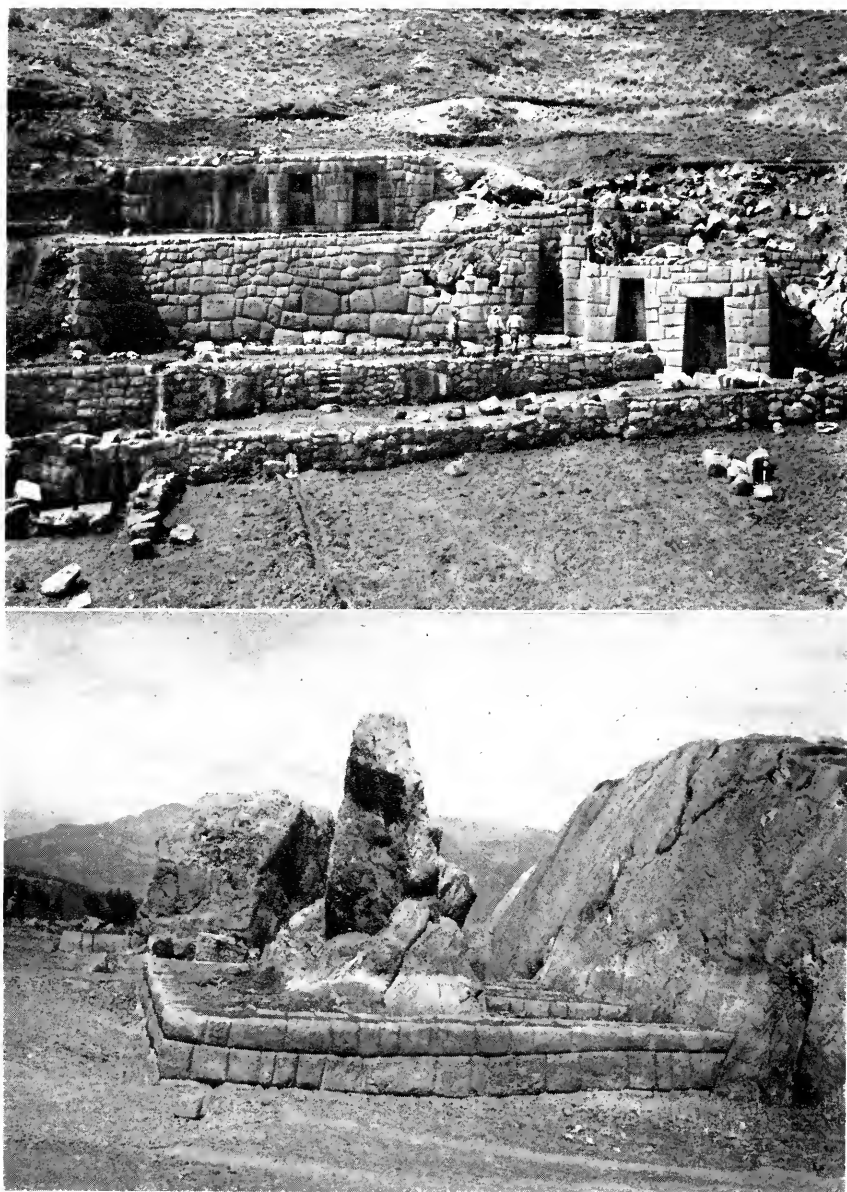
Decadent Tiahuanaco pottery in technique of manufacture is notably inferior to the Classical, for less attention is paid to polish and the designs are carelessly applied. Black and white on orange is the usual color combination. Geometrical patterns are more common and zoöomorphic figures are broken up into parts until the puma head alone, or perhaps just the human eye, is used as an element of design.

Each of the periods here indicated is characterized by definite pottery shapes, too complex for discussion at present. The same is true of the Inca vessels found above the Tiahuanaco series. No material in this excavation could be considered transitional in style between Tiahuanaco and Inca.

In 1934 Bennett again visited Bolivia. Near Cochabamba he excavated three large refuse mounds and forty-five graves. The pottery from the graves gives ground for subdividing the Decadent Tiahuanaco period and also suggests connections with the interior lowland culture such as has been found at Mojos.

At Chiripa on the southern shore of Lake Titicaca, Bennett found a large mound with vestiges on it of a square, semi-subterranean stone-faced temple of Decadent Tiahuanaco style. Inside the mound stood house walls of an earlier period. These walls were built of adobe and small stones. They were of double construction with a space in the center, entered through niches, which was probably used for storage. The inner surface was finished in burnt clay. One doorway was provided with a slot at the side apparently to accommodate a sliding door (fig. 5). Within these houses a new kind of pottery was found: straight-sided open bowls decorated with animal figures modeled in relief and with zigzag lines painted in yellow on red. On Pariti Island in the southern part of Lake Titicaca, this ware was found in test pits again lying under Decadent Tiahuanaco remains but above an earlier grave containing carved bone and gold objects of Classical style. Thus Chiripa pottery is established as a definite cultural unit and is dated between Classical and Decadent Tiahuanaco.

Existence of the Classical Tiahuanaco style of architecture except at Tiahuanaco itself has been questioned, but Bennett has found it at two other localities while Posnansky has encountered it at a third. At Lucurmata near Chiripa there is a large flat topped hill. On the summit stands a temple wall of upright or horizontal rectangular stone blocks with sunken niches suggesting the Classical style of Tiahuanaco. Three stairways, including a set of three monolithic steps, descended from the wall to a paved area. To the east was a small semi-subterranean temple constructed of large stone blocks, some of which had inset niches. Two courses completed the full height of the walls and the upper blocks, which had fallen inward, had a projecting molding along the top. The corners were formed by single L-shape blocks. Leading from a wall opening in one corner was a U-shape stone



Courtesy of Luis E. Valcárcel.

FIGURE 6.—RESTORATIONS AND CLEARING NEAR CUZCO, PERU.

In commemoration of the quadricentennial of the founding of the Spanish city of Cuzco, the Peruvian Government has undertaken extensive investigations and restorations at numerous sites in the vicinity of that city. Upper: Baths of Tampumachay in course of repair. Lower: Sacred pinnacle in the Sanctuary of Kenko.

drainage canal. Most of the pottery found in this temple consisted of incense bowls modeled in the form of a puma, a type characteristic of the Classical Tiahuanaco period.

The second Tiahuanaco style temple excavated by Bennett was at Pajchiri on Cumaná Island in Lake Titicaca. Here again there were walls and stairs of large stone blocks. Digging revealed pottery of Inca style and there was an Inca house constructed of stones removed from the more ancient temple.

On Simillaka Island in the great swamp of the Desaguadero River below Lake Titicaca, Prof. A. Posnansky has found a large megalithic enclosure, also constructed in Tiahuanaco style. A plan and description of this as well as other archaeological data appear in his interesting article on the Urus in the *Actas* of the XXVth Congress.

Four hundred years ago the Spaniards under Pizarro occupied the city of Cuzco where the Inca dynasty had ruled for nearly five centuries. In commemoration of this event, the Peruvian government has undertaken a great program of clearing and restoring the ancient monuments in the vicinity. This work has been carried out in charge of Dr. Luis E. Valcárcel, director of the Museo Nacional in Lima, aided by a large staff of archaeologists, engineers, artists, photographers and hundreds of workmen. The magnitude of the undertaking may be gauged by the fact that it includes excavation and clearing of Sajsawaman¹, the great megalithic citadel on the outskirts of Cuzco; six sites on the Janan Kosko (upper Cuzco) plateau, two of which are illustrated in our fig. 6; the shrine of Sapantiana and Choquechaca; the famous Kollkampata palace, the Temple of the Sun, the House of the Virgins and various other ancient walls in Cuzco; Machu Pijchu, the lofty city explored by Senator Hiram Bingham, where an inn for tourists is under construction; also Salapunko, Ollantaytambo, Pikillajta, Rumik Ilka, Pisaj, Tarawasi (Limatambo), the Temple of Wirakocha at Kacha and Vilcabamba. An outline of the results obtained was published in *El Comercio* (Cuzco), May 26, 1934, and in *Revista del Museo Nacional* (tomo III, Nos. 1-2).

Dr. Valcárcel, in addition, has published an account of his work at Sajsawaman in the *Revista* and in a previous number of this BULLETIN (July 1934), which we shall briefly review. The citadel of Sajsawaman stands at the edge of a hill which drops sharply to the present city of Cuzco. The more gently sloping side, away from the city, is defended by a triple line of zigzag walls, famous for the huge and accurately fitting stones they contain. Dr. Valcárcel has cleared out the interior which had been pulled to pieces and covered with earth after the Spanish conquest. New defensive walls have thus come to light, also

¹ Saesahuaman is the usual spelling. Present-day students in Peru have abandoned the spelling of native names as first recorded by the Spaniards and standardized by custom in favor of a phonetic system of their own. In this article we have not been consistent but have followed in each case the spelling submitted to us by various individuals.

various living rooms, passages, stairs, gates, fountains, towers and a reservoir. The towers are three in number, two rectangular and one rounded. The round tower embraced the reservoir which is estimated to hold 40,000 liters of water. Part of the aqueducts which fed this tank have been discovered. The ultimate source of the water, however, remains unknown, for it could only reach the heights of the citadel by a siphon system, a device which the Inca understood well. Accounts of the excavations of other sites will be published in the near future.

Many important results have already come or may be expected from the Cuzco work. In the first place, only four of the many thousand objects recovered from the ground were of foreign manufacture and no trace was found of an older culture underlying the Inca. This means that the once generally accepted theory of an early megalithic culture is dead. Furthermore, the various types of masonry and other architectural details seem to depend on the purpose of the building rather than the date of its construction.

Many small objects were collected during the excavations, including several tons of potsherds, and everything has been carefully recorded and preserved. Pottery vessels of hitherto unknown types are included and broken fragments from which it is hoped to learn by analysis the nature of the ten colors employed by the Inca. A find of chronological significance was a Tiahuanaco jar encountered almost on the surface near the circular tower.

As a result of the interest aroused by the Cuzco excavations an Archaeological Institute has been formed which will take charge of the collections, open a museum and carry out further investigations. The institute hopes to coordinate research in the vicinity and invites the cooperation of foreign students.

Above the well-known ruins of Machu Pichu stands a huge peak called Huayna Pichu which can be climbed only with the greatest difficulty. The Marquis de Wavrin has published (*Jour. Soc. des Américanistes*, N. S. t. XXIII) an account of his ascent as well as plans of terraces, caves, and other features. Two sets of terraces were of unusual interest. One near the base of the mountain consisted of four "saw-tooth" walls one above another, which recall the defensive walls in the fortress of Sacsahuaman. The other was a set of seven broad terraces near the summit. Along the outer edge of each terrace stood a series of rectangular masonry blocks measuring 1.5 meters on a side. These could be ascended by projecting stones arranged *en échelon*.

Dr. Julio C. Tello, who has provided most of the known facts upon which our present knowledge of Chavin culture rests, has uncovered two splendid buildings representing this art situated 20 and 25 kilometers from the sea in the Nepeña Valley, Province of



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FIGURE 7.—THE GREAT WALL OF PERU.

A spectacular discovery of the Shippee-Johnson aerial expedition to Peru was a defensive wall stretching inland from the coastal plains over mountain ridges for some forty miles. Measuring fifteen feet in height and width, it was punctuated at intervals with forts of stone and adobe.

Santa. The fullest account of these finds now available was published by Mr. P. A. Means (*New York Times Magazine*, May 20, 1934). The first site, known as Cerro Blanco, was a pyramidal structure as discovered. Cutting into this, Tello found that the upper portion contained pottery fragments of the Early Chimú (Muchik) period. Underneath this stands an edifice with several rooms separated by massive stone walls scarcely a meter high. They are elaborately carved on the sides and in some cases on the tops with boldly rendered reliefs in Chavín style, emphasized with red,



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FIGURE 8.—A FORTRESS AT PARAMONGA, PERU.

In a much better state of preservation than other structures in the Chimú region of northern Peru is this stronghold located some distance south of the great wall.

white, blue, and green paint. The decoration on the tops of the walls indicates that they never stood higher than at present.

The second site excavated by Tello is known as Punkuri. Here again was a structure with walls carved and painted in the style of Chavín. In addition, some of the rooms had round stone columns, and certain chambers stood on different levels connected by stairways. Projecting from the center of a stairway was a massive buttress on which rested a large clay statue of a puma. Its face was painted green, the lips red, the eyes blue, the feet red, and the body was spotted with white, black, and blue. Other finds included well-carved bowls of stone, such as have been found with Chavín

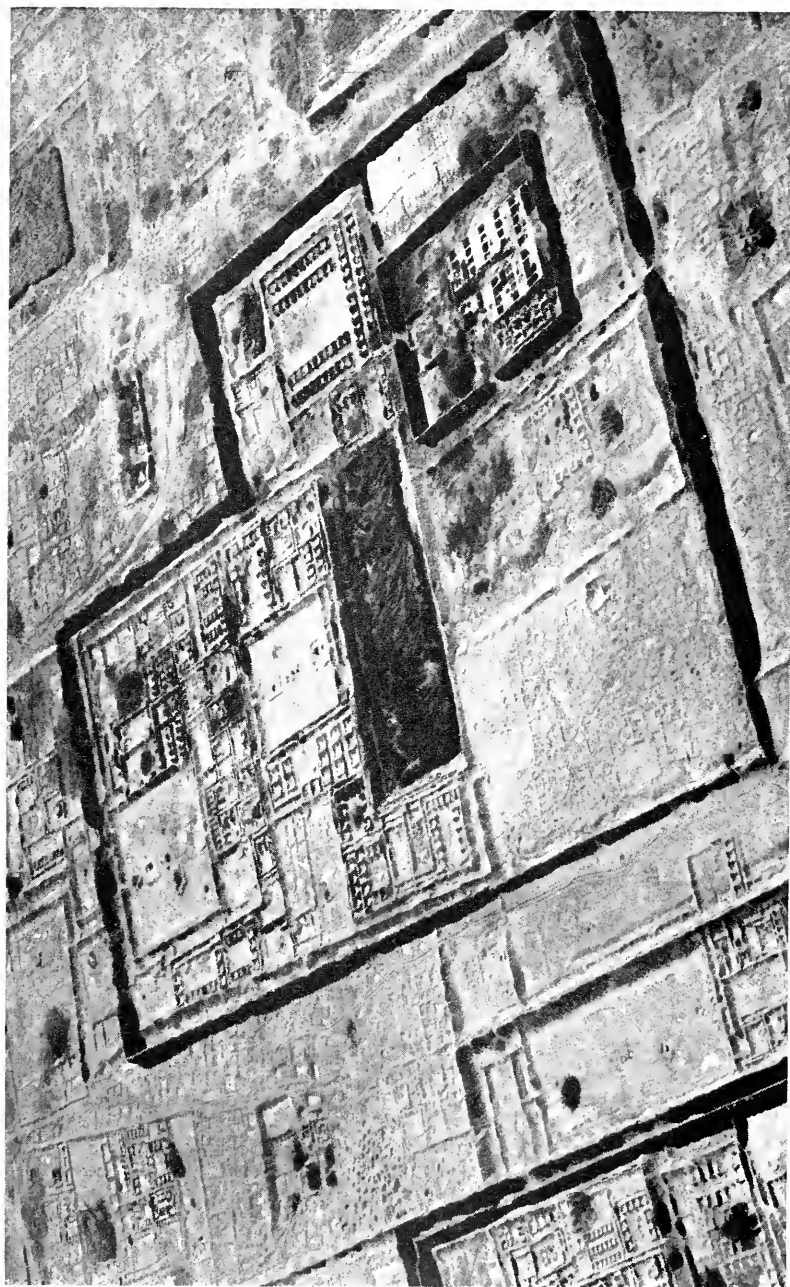
remains elsewhere, and a long pestle. These all have finely incised patterns.

While full appraisal of Tello's discoveries must await publication, it can be pointed out here that his efforts have extended the known range of Chavin culture from Chavin itself over a considerable part of the northern highlands as well as from Lambayeque on the north coast to the Nepeña Valley, little more than 200 miles from Lima. Uhle's discovery many years ago at Moche (published by Kroeber) of Chavin and Early Chimú pottery in the same grave showed that the two were in part contemporaneous. Tello's work at Cerro Blanco now proves Chavin in part the older of the two.

In the central section of the Peruvian coast, Dr. Ronald L. Olson dug a series of small test trenches for the American Museum of Natural History. He opened a dozen graves of the Middle Chimú period in the Viru Valley and investigated the circumstances under which the important metal collection from Huarney, now in the American Museum, had been found. He is satisfied about the authenticity of this collection, which had been questioned. At Ancón he dug in a midden yielding remains of a type which Dr. Uhle believes of great age. He unearthed both painted and incised pottery stylistically distinct from other local types, but secured no additional information concerning their chronological place in the prehistory of Peru.

Dr. Olson has carried out another important archaeological reconnaissance in the Province of Chachapoyas. He regards the fortresses, temples, and houses as stone architecture basically like that of Chavin and Tiahuanaco. Some villages are composed entirely of circular stone houses from 10 to 30 feet in diameter with corbel-vaulted stone roofs. Other villages have both round and square houses with similar roofs. The dead were buried in caves or house-like tombs on the face of cliffs—many at heights which made them completely inaccessible. Each tomb held up to a dozen bodies, in perfect condition when they had not been attacked by condors. Contacts with the forest and coastal areas were indicated by coca and cotton fabrics. The pottery is crude and heavy. Decoration, which is rare, consists of appliqué strips or crudely modelled figures and spirals painted in red on a cream slip.

General Louis Langlois also has published an account (*Revista del Museo Nacional*, t. II, no. 2) of a reconnaissance of the Utcubamba Valley in the vicinity of the town of Chachapoyas. Twenty-three sites were visited and plans were made of ancient ruins at San Antonio, Tella, Tuich, Macru, and—in greater detail—the huge fortress of Cuelap. In general, ancient remains consisted of stone-walled circular houses set on terraces or hilltops, at elevations between 2,500 and 3,500 meters.



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FIGURE 9.—A RUINED PALACE AT CHANCHAN.

This view of a palace in the ancient Chimú capital, with its wall-enclosed garden and lake areas, demonstrates the superiority of air exploration over ground surveying in the study of large archaeological sites free of vegetation.

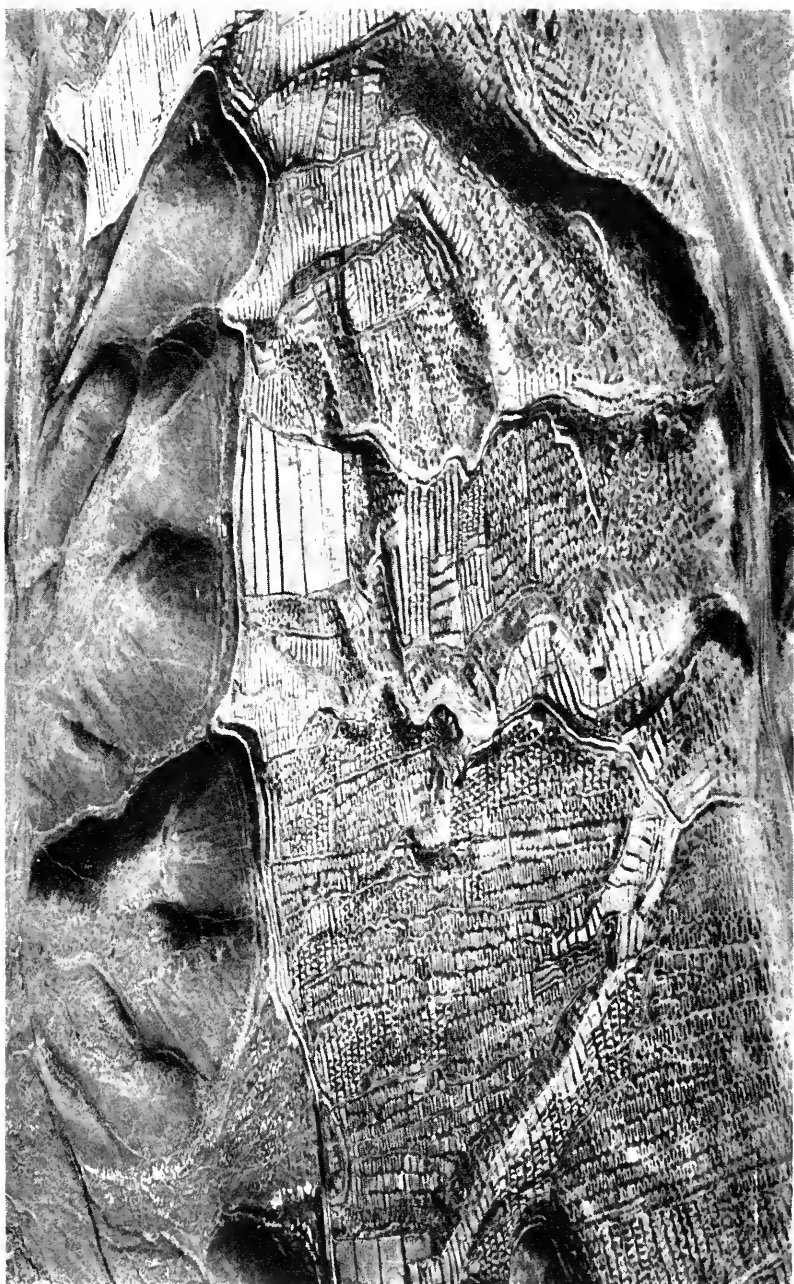
In the Nasca region of southern Peru, Dr. H. U. Doering has excavated in the Huayurí, Cahuachi, Estaquería and Las Trancas districts, where he found cemeteries representing the Nasca, Ica, Tiahuanaco, and Epigonal cultures (*Forschungen und Fortschritte*, 9. Jahrg. Nr. 10). Nasca sites were not predominant in these localities. Regarding Epigonal culture, which he suggests be renamed "Morro-Kultur" because it is not a derived but a dominant culture, he defines the pottery as having simple and crude shapes with painted decoration recalling Nasca style, and he states that it existed with modifications from the end of the Nasca period until Inca times. Early Epigonal tombs face south, later ones to the west, and the most recent to the east. For cultural origins, he looks to Pachacamac and Moche, especially to the latter. As Doering himself points out, although many conjectures have been strongly urged, field data concerning southern Peru are woefully lacking, and it is greatly to be hoped that he will publish a detailed record of his excavations.

Dr. Olson has also worked in southern Peru. At the famous Paracas site near Pisco he and Dr. Tello opened a tomb of the *cavernas* type yielding reburied bodies. Near Ocucaje in the Ica Valley he excavated a tomb which contained material both of Tiahuanaco and Paracas styles. The former was exemplified by a mummy bundle with the false head painted in red and adorned by the well-known "weeping eye." Paracas features included a wicker basket and ladle-like "strainer" worked in colors. A local resident presented Olson with five pottery vessels which in the semiglazed finish, the colors and the incised patterns were identical with pieces from Paracas itself. The known range of Paracas culture is thus extended a considerable distance southward.

In the Nasca region near Palpa Dr. Olson opened a large cruciform tomb some 30 feet deep. In it he found pottery slightly different in style from classical Nasca. He also dug at Pacheco where Dr. Tello had found an amazing richness of pottery forms painted in almost pure Tiahuanaco style. In addition Dr. Olson searched for ancient refuse heaps which might yield stratigraphic data.

The archaeology of the region of Arequipa has not received the attention accorded to ancient remains in other parts of Peru. Dr. Valcárcel has recently visited a site known as Churajón or Sawaka. He found a system of terraces built of huge unshaped stones set in small boulders. There also were houses like chullpas built of unworked stone. The whole site was dominated by a great aqueduct over 40 kilometers long. Pottery was of pure Inca style.

Archaeologists of the present day at times find aviation of great assistance. Flights over Guatemala and Yucatan, sponsored by the Carnegie Institution of Washington and the University of Pennsylvania Museum, under the direction of Col. Charles Lindbergh and



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FIGURE 10.—IRRIGATED TERRACES IN THE PISCO VALLEY.

Intricate patterns are formed by the carefully laid out fields and irrigation systems in some of the valleys of Peru that were centers of great agricultural activity even prior to the Inca civilization.

Mr. Percy C. Madeira, Jr., have shown that the airplane in that region is a costly means of discovering ancient cities hidden by jungle. An aerial expedition to Peru, headed by Mr. Robert Shippee and Lieut. George R. Johnson, however, has proved that aviation may be of great value to the archaeologist in territory free of vegetation. Most spectacular of their discoveries was the so-called great wall of Peru on the north side of the Santa Valley, which they traced inland from the coastal plains over mountain ridges for some 40 miles. It was 15 feet high and thick. On either side of the wall they counted fourteen forts, round or square in outline, with walls which still rise to a height of 15 feet (fig. 7).

Such discoveries of course are of great importance, but of equal value are the air maps of vast ruins like Chanchan, which covers 11 square miles. Here the camera, aided by proper lighting, can pick out details completely hidden from the eye of an observer on the ground, while a single exposure will record the great Chimú palaces with their enclosing walls, multiple rooms, artificial lakes up to 450 feet long and their irrigated gardens—a task of months for the terrestrial surveyor. Other photographs of great importance to the archaeologist taken by this expedition cover ruins, agricultural terraces and irrigation systems in the Lurín, Cañete, and Pisco Valleys as well as in the vicinity of Cuzco. Accounts of this expedition and reproductions of the photographs have appeared in *The Geographical Review* (vol. XXII) and *The National Geographic Magazine* (Jan. 1933).

In Ecuador, Prof. M. Jijón y Caamaño visited a tomb near San Gabriel, Province of Carchí, where gilded copper objects had been found. A short description of the tomb and its contents appears in *Jour. Soc. des Américanistes*, N. S., t. XXIV. In addition six burials were dug out on the property known as El Capulí and an inspection was made of circular houses at Paja Blanca.

We turn now to Brazil. Dr. V. M. Petrullo has excavated for the University of Pennsylvania Museum two archaeological sites on the banks of the Paraguay River in southern Matto Grosso (*The Museum Journal*, vol. XXIII, no. 2). One of these, located under the present settlement of Descavaldos, was covered on the surface by broken pottery and other refuse. Flexed burials were found at depths ranging from 30 cm to 1.5 m. With these were necklaces of perforated teeth, shell disks, and cylindrical beads of jasper. Badly fired pottery vessels of coarse clay had been placed over the skulls. A few pieces had been decorated by impressed string patterns. Petrullo's second site lay 5 miles to the west. Here clusters of rocks on the surface marked the presence beneath of groups of funeral urns. Refuse finds consisted of stone celts, stone beads, bone points, spindle whorls, and small red pottery vessels sometimes decorated with simple patterns painted in red or black. The burial groups contained elongated or globular urns and the flat bowls which capped them.

To the north of Rio de Janeiro, Mr. A. C. Simoens da Silva has dug out burial urns at Ponte Nova in the State of Minas Geraes and has excavated a shell heap near Lagôa de Saquarema where he found burials, stone objects and undecorated pottery. An account of this material appears in the *Actas* of the XXVth Congress.

Farther north, in the region behind Alcantara, Mr. Raimundo Lopes from the Museu Nacional de Rio de Janeiro has explored a number of pile-dwelling sites on Lakes Genipapo, Caboclo, Armindo, Cabelludo and do Souza. In the last-named lake, through which flows the Tury River, he discovered a new ceramic type. Some of his data have been published in *Revista Nacional de Educação*, nos. 13-15.

The Ilha de Marajó at the mouth of the Amazon has again been the scene of archaeological investigation. Mr. H. A. Torres has explored five hitherto unknown sites of which three were ancient camps while the two others were cemeteries. One of the latter (Pacoval de Cururú) consisted of an artificial mound located on land which lies under water except at low tide. The camp sites in each case yielded undecorated pottery but the cemeteries contained the beautiful carved pottery for which this island is famous.

Mr. Desmond Holdridge of the Brooklyn Museum opened five mounds on the eastern half of Marajó. One of these, on the banks of the Anajaz River, rose 70 feet from the river bed and was entirely artificial. Funeral pottery was found in three distinct layers. At the top and bottom nothing but undecorated red vessels occurred while the middle level contained painted pieces with relief decoration.

North of Marajó lies Ilha Mexiana. Here H. A. Torres found pottery of a quite different type. Raimundo Lopes also has excavated a shell heap of Ilha Maiobinha (*Bol. do Museu Nacional*, 1931).

Three archaeological expeditions conducted by Dr. W. C. Bennett (American Museum of Natural History), Dr. C. B. Osgood (Peabody Museum, Yale University), and Mr. A. V. Kidder II (Peabody Museum, Harvard University), have recently worked in Venezuela near Lake Valencia, which measures over 20 miles in length and lies in the Aragua Valley some 70 miles east of Caracas.

At La Mata near Maracay, Dr. Bennett opened one of a group of 40 mounds which averaged 25 meters in diameter by 3 in height. He found a lower layer which consisted of refuse material thrown out from a pile dwelling erected there when the waters of the lake still covered the site. No burials occurred in this level. Above the bottom layer came a fill of clay which suggested a definite period of mound building. In this were some secondary burials, both in the ground and in pottery urns. The top of the mound to the depth of a meter consisted of black humus which contained refuse and primary burials in an extended position. The grey pottery of the bottom layer persisted with some modification in style throughout the top

layer, but in addition there was a coarse red ware with characteristic shapes both of vessels and of figurines.

Mr. A. V. Kidder's excavations were carried out at El Tamarindo on La Cabrera Peninsula, situated on the north shore of the lake. He found a lower layer of sands and gravels deposited by the lake. In this were primary burials and a hard, thin pottery with a high burnish. Certain vessels of this class stand on short legs which in turn rest on pottery rings—a feature of pottery from western Vene-

FIGURE 11.—A VENEZUELAN URN BURIAL.

Excavations at La Cabrera Peninsula on Lake Valencia brought to light these urn burials at the upper level.



Courtesy of Peabody Museum, Harvard University.

zuela and southern Central America. This level also contained many elbow pipes of pottery with round or cylindrical bowls, often modeled with heads or torsos facing the smoker. The top layer at El Tamarindo was of humus in which were urn burials, thus reversing the Burial but not the ceramic sequence found by Bennett at La Mata (fig. 11). Pottery of the upper level was a coarse red ware, however, as at Lamata, but at times it was adorned with simple patterns painted in red or white. Female figurines and molded figures on rims differed in style from the modeling seen on pipes from the lower level.

Further archaeological work in Venezuela has been carried out by V. M. Petrullo some 200 miles to the southeast at Arauquín in the Apure delta. Here was found pottery with incised geometric designs of unusual complexity and variety as well as vessels adorned with modeled heads and figures of men, birds, and animals. In style some pieces show affinity with the art of Tacarigua, but the remains as a whole are of local character.

Mrs. Gladys Nomland has described a refuse heap and collections found in it at Hato Viejo on Lake Venezuela in the State of Falcón. Most burials were in urns, which at times contained only parts of human skeletons. One large urn held the major portion of two children's skeletons. The decapitated heads had been placed in smaller vessels which in turn were deposited in the larger urn. This suggests secondary burial. Pottery included grey-brown and red wares made both with and without slip, black on white ware, red on terra-cotta ware, red on buff, maroon on cream, black on red and polychrome wares. In general the pottery resembled remains from Aruba, Curaçao, and Bonaire Islands and from eastern Venezuela, although certain similarities to Panama and southern Central America were noted. Stone implements also show relationship with the islands and adjacent mainland.

At Ocaña in the Colombian Department of Santander del Norte, Fathers Debilly and Escobar have excavated a number of burials, the presence of which was marked by circular pavements on the surface. Each grave contained four or five burial urns, tall cylindrical vessels with modeled animal heads projecting from the sides. Each jar has a flat cover on which is a large human figure seated so that the legs dangle over the rim.

Near Concordia in the Department of Antioquia, Father Rochereau found three rectangular stone coffins provided with covers. The largest was 1.8 meters long, 55 cm wide, and 38 cm high. Both the coffin itself and the cover had at each end two projecting handles. Inside these coffins were human bones and gold jewelry.

An important addition to Colombian archaeology is Dr. J. Alden Mason's *Archaeology of Santa Marta, Colombia. The Tairona Culture* (Field Museum of Natural History). The first volume deals with the record of excavation and ancient constructions. A second volume soon to be published covers the material culture.

In the Province of Coclé, Panama, the Peabody Museum of Harvard University has continued the excavations mentioned in the previous summary. This work, successively under the charge of H. B. Roberts and S. K. Lothrop, has been carried on for three years at one site, while Mr. Douglas Byers has dug for a field season in a second locality. A third site has been tested by pits, while collections have been secured by purchase from other places in the vicinity.

The scene of the principal excavations, known as the Sitio Conte, is on the eastern bank of the Río Grande de Coelé not far from Natá, and the total area containing archaeological material is only a few acres in extent. Most important of the discoveries were several stratified series of graves which changed in type and increased in richness of content as the depth increased. Burials nearest the surface were in a flexed position with few funeral furnishings. At a greater depth there were usually two bodies, male and female, placed face downward with heads to the northeast. They were surrounded by thirty to forty pottery vessels and had jewelry of bone, stone, and gold. Graves of the lowest level contained up to twenty-two bodies

FIGURE 12.—DESIGN OF
A PLATE FROM
COCLÉ PROVINCE,
PANAMA.

This elaborate zoöomorphic and geometric design was worked out in red and black on a plate 12¾ inches in diameter.



Courtesy of Peabody Museum, Harvard University.

arranged around a central figure which sometimes had been buried in a seated position. Over two hundred pottery vessels were found in each of these graves, as well as personal ornaments in large quantities.

Coelé pottery is of several varieties which have not as yet been classified. The most spectacular pieces belong to a polychrome ware painted in black, red, orange, grey, blue, and purple upon a cream base. Patterns are both zoöomorphic and geometric, the former at times showing relationship with Peruvian motives and the latter with the art of northeastern South America, while the polychrome technique as a whole may denote influence of the Chorotega in southern Central America.



FIGURE 13.—A JAR WITH SPOUT
FROM PANAMA.

The relationship between the varieties of pottery found in the Province of Coclé and those of other sections of Latin America is receiving study.

Courtesy of Peabody Museum, Harvard University.

FIGURE 14.—A GOLD
PLAQUE.

This plaque, $11\frac{3}{4}$ inches wide, is a good specimen of the workmanship which distinguished the hammered objects found in the Coclé excavations.



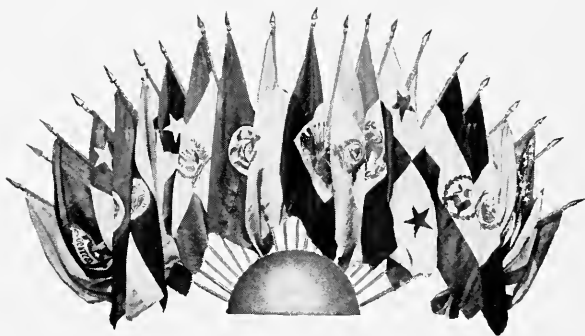
Courtesy of Peabody Museum, Harvard University.

Metal work is highly developed and both cast and hammered objects exhibit expert craftsmanship and beauty of line. Copper and gold are the only two metals found, often alloyed in various proportions. The objects made of metal include a helmet, breastplates, cuffs, greaves, nose rings, ear spools, finger rings, and sundry human and animal figures. Sometimes effigy pendants were made partly of gold and partly of some such stone as agate, beryl, or quartz. Carvings of wood, bone, and ivory often were overlayed with gold. Designs, when not of local flavor, suggest connection with those of Peru.

No final opinion on the relationships of the Coclé culture can be given until the collections have been repaired and studied. So far nothing has been found to indicate that it flourished for more than a couple of centuries before the Spanish conquest. Chiriquí culture, to judge by trade pieces passed between the two areas, also is of recent date. The territory occupied by remains of Coclé type includes the entire Asuero Peninsula, the Pacific watershed eastward to the Panama Canal and the Pearl Islands. Within this area there is a second culture marked by pottery stylistically allied with Guetar and Lencan art and possibly a third culture typified by the burial runs found on Ancón Hill.

In concluding this report, I must point out that it is far from complete. In anticipation of the next summary to be published, I beg that fellow students will send me accounts of their activities, not only final publications but newspaper clippings, articles in magazines not regularly devoted to archaeological subjects, and brief manuscripts, as well as photographs covering the material that has yet to appear in print.





PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

Conference on bibliography.—The Cuban Government has informed the Pan American Union that the Conference on Bibliography that was to have been held in Habana in November has been postponed.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY

Constitutions of Argentina and Uruguay.—The Library has received a few copies of the Constitutions of Argentina and of Uruguay. These are available for free distribution as long as the supply lasts.

Publications on bibliography.—Two new mimeographed publications, Numbers 13 and 14 of the Congress and Conference Series, were issued in preparation for the Inter-American Conference on Bibliography which was to have been held this year. Number 13 contains documents transmitted by the Pan American Union. Number 14 is a study entitled *Source materials and special collections dealing with Latin America in libraries of the United States*, by A. Curtis Wilgus, Ph. D., of the George Washington University.

New books.—The new books received during the last month include the following:

Historia del Libertador Don José de San Martín, por José Pacífico Otero . . . Buenos Aires, Cabaut y cia., 1932. 4 v. plates (part col.), ports., facsims. 25 cm. Contents: t. 1. El Capitán de los Andes, 1777-1817. t. 2. El Libertador de Chile, 1817-20. t. 3. El Libertador y el Protector del Perú, 1820-22. t. 4. Ostracismo y apoteosis, 1822-50. [The author has contributed several valuable works to Argentine history. This most recent, and longest, is perhaps the fullest biography of the Argentine patriot, and is a worthy monument to his immortal name. Each volume has a documentary appendix and the whole work is supplemented by a seven-page bibliography.]

El pacto del A. B. C. P., Argentina-Brasil-Chile-Perú [por] Capitán Nemo (Guillermo Heins) . . . Buenos Aires, Editorial Tor [1934?]. 156 [4] p. 18½ cm. (Ediciones argentinas "Condor"; colección El mundo de hoy—Vol. IX.) [A recent study in which the author summarizes twenty years of South American

diplomatic history. The final chapters discuss Pan Americanism and include the Saavedra Lamas anti-war pact.]

Estructura económica y orientación política de la agricultura en la República Argentina [por] Lázaro Nemirovsky . . . Obra premiada por la Institución Mitre. Buenos Aires, Librería y Casa editora de Jesús Menéndez, 1933. xxi, 241 p. tables. 23½ em. [Dr. Nemirovsky, a professor in the Universidad nacional del Litoral, presents a long and complete study on the economic aspects of agriculture in Argentina with various comparative statements on the question in other countries.]

Política internacional [por] Joaquín V. González. Prólogo de Mariano de Vedia. Buenos Aires, Talleres gráficos argentinos de L. J. Rosso, 1934. 326 p. 19½ em. [The contents of this volume, one of the last from Dr. González's pen, include articles on international relations, on the League of Nations, on relations between the United States and Latin America, Argentina and Spain, Argentina and Chile and other South American countries, on the A. B. C. countries and on arbitration.]

Portales: introducción a la historia de la época de Diego Portales (1830-91) [por] Francisco A. Encina. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1934. 2 v. pl. (port.) 19 em. [This work is a history of Chile during and after the time of Portales' government, showing the political and economic forces which influenced the growth of the republic for sixty years.]

Las letras chilenas [por] Domingo Amunátegui Solar. Texto recomendado por la Dirección de educación secundaria. Segunda edición. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1934. 379 p. 19 em. [This literary manual, intended as a textbook, although not complete (since the author states that a complete study of the copious literature of Chile would not be fitting for the use to which this volume will be put) forms a good background for the student of Chilean literary history, containing as it does studies of representative writers from the colonial period to today.]

Don Antonio García Reyes i algunos de sus antepasados, a la luz de documentos inéditos [por] Miguel Luis Amunátegui Reyes. Santiago de Chile, Editorial del Pacífico, 1934. t. v: 313 p. 25 em. [The fifth volume of an amply documented life of a famous Chilean jurist, political leader and writer, whose life, although short (1817-55), was nevertheless full of honor. Besides holding several high Government offices and a national diplomatic post García Reyes was a professor in the University of Chile. The author, Miguel Luis Amunátegui Reyes, is well known as a historian, a biographer, and a grammarian.]

Historia general de Chile [por] Diego Barros Arana. IIª edición, corregida por el ejemplar que dejó revisado el autor, impresa en homenaje a su centenario y auspiciada por la Universidad de Chile. Santiago, Editorial Nascimento, 1934. t. viii: 499 p. plates, ports. 24½ em. [The first edition of this excellent history was published in fifteen volumes from 1884 to 1897. Publication of this second edition was begun in 1930. With the eighth volume the account is brought down to the first period of the Revolution, from 1808 to 1814.]

Obras desconocidas de Rubén Darío, escritas en Chile y no recopiladas en ninguno de sus libros. Edición recogida por Raúl Silva Castro y precedida de un estudio. [Santiago] Prensas de la Universidad de Chile, 1934. cxxiii, 316 p. 25 em. [A posthumous volume of works of the author of *Azul* comes as a surprise, and a pleasant one, to many readers. Señor Silva Castro has published several previous studies of Darío. This one includes a long essay on *Rubén Darío y Chile*, a study of his influence on modernism in poetry and a critical bibliography of 218 entries. The section devoted to Darío's works embraces poems, essays, articles, letters, and memoirs.]

Geografía botánica de Chile [por] Dr. Karl Reiche. Traducción del alemán de Gualterio Looser. . . . Santiago, Imprenta universitaria, 1934. t. i: 423 p. 24 cm. [The German text of this geography was published in Leipzig in 1907. Since then it has been recognized as an important contribution to Chilean botany, based on years of scientific labor in the country.]

Breve historia de México, por Alfonso Teja Zabre. México, Talleres gráficos de la nación, 1934. 195 p. illus. 23½ cm. [A new textbook for rural schools published by the Secretaría de educación pública. It is a history of Mexico from the earliest times to the present and shows the influence of Indian cultures and of agricultural and economic conditions on national history.]

Feria de libros de Madrid, 1934. Libros y bibliotecas de México. La organización bibliográfica mexicana. Madrid, Unión poligráfica, S. A. [1934] 26 p. 21½ cm. [As a contribution to the recent Madrid Book Fair the Mexican Government prepared this concise report on books in Mexico. The topics in the contents include: intellectual production (*i. e.*, books, periodicals, and music), bibliography (which lists some of the outstanding bibliographies), stimulus to production, organization of intellectual activities (*i. e.*, learned institutions and societies), the publication and sale of books (a very short history of typography, contemporary publishers and book dealers, and prices of printing), classification of libraries, archives (with a list of the principal archives of the nation), courses for librarians and similar activities (three library schools, the department of libraries and two associations), administration of libraries, national and international cooperation (congresses, library propaganda, interchange of publications and of duplicates, uniformity of classification, and cooperative catalogs), encouragement of national and continental bibliographies, and a list of the best Mexican book dealers.]

Primicias de Oro de Indias (Poemas neo-mundiales). . . . [Por] José Santos Chocano. [Santiago de Chile, Imp. Siglo xx, n. d.] t. i: 385 p. front. (port.), illus. 18 cm. Contents: De "Tierras mágicas", de "Las Mil y una noches de América", de "Alma de Virrey", de "Corazón aventurero". [*Oro de Indias* is a collection of nine volumes of poems. The *Primicias* contains representative poems from these nine books, to be published in two volumes.]

Algunos apuntes sobre los tratados [y acuerdos internacionales vigentes en Venezuela . . . por el] Doctor Pedro Itriago-Chacín. Caracas, Tipografía americana [n. d.] xxi, 331 p. 23½ cm. [The present Venezuelan Minister of foreign relations has collected data and made observations on Venezuelan treaties in force. As a supplementary volume to the collection of treaties now being published and entitled *Tratados públicos y acuerdos internacionales de Venezuela* . . . , it is of interest to students of international questions.]

The Permanent court of international justice; a treatise, by Manley O. Hudson . . . New York, The Macmillan company, 1934. xxvii, 731 p. 24 cm. Contents: Part I. Precursors of the Permanent court of international justice (including the Permanent court of arbitration, International commissions of inquiry, and the Central American court of justice). Part II. Creation of the Permanent court of international justice. Part III. The organization of the Permanent court of international justice. Part IV. The jurisdiction of the Permanent court of international justice. Part V. Procedure and practice of the Permanent court of international justice. Part VI. The application of law by the Permanent court of international justice. Appendices. [An interesting study of the formation and the law of the Court written after twelve years of its functioning. Dr. Hudson has written several other works on the Court and on various topics pertaining to international law.]

Stories of the Latin American states, by Nellie Van de Grift Sánchez . . . New York, Thomas Y. Crowell company [c. 1934] viii, 391 p. incl. maps. front. (col. map) 21 cm. [According to the preface "The purpose of this book is to give in outline . . . a sort of birdseye view, of the history of the Latin American states." The book discusses all the Latin American nations and the American possessions of Great Britain, France, the Netherlands, and the United States.]

José Artigas, protector de los pueblos libres, por Alberto Lasplacés. Primera edición. Madrid, Espasa-Calpe, S. A., 1933. 248 p. front. (port.) 19 cm. (Vidas españolas e hispanoamericanas del siglo XIX. [tomo] 38. [Another in a series of studies treating of Spanish-Americans or Spaniards. This shows the high place given to Artigas in Uruguayan history. Sr. Lasplacés, a well-known Uruguayan critic, has also written a biography of José Pedro Varela, the nineteenth century Uruguayan educator.]

Historia general de las Indias [por] Francisco López de Gómara. Madrid [etc.] Espasa-Calpe, S. A., 1932. 2 v. 19 cm. (Viajes clásicos. 21-22.) [A reprint of the first part of Gómara's *Historia general de las Indias*, published in Saragossa in 1552-53.]

Antología de los comentarios reales [por] el inca Garcilaso de la Vega. Con una introducción crítica por D. José de la Riva-Agüero. Madrid, M. Aguilar, editor, 1929. 565 p. 19½ cm. (Biblioteca histórica iberoamericana.) [Excerpts from the famous Commentaries.]

Fuentes de la historia española e hispanoamericana; ensayo de bibliografía sistemática de impresos y manuscritos que ilustran la historia política de España y sus antiguas provincias de ultramar [por] B. Sánchez Alonso. Segunda edición, revisada y ampliada . . . Madrid [Imprenta clásica española] 1927. t. i: xvi, 468 p. 20 cm. (Publicaciones de la Revista de filología española. v. VIII.) [This long bibliography, compiled from many sources, contains 13,172 references; in addition there are complete indices of authors and topics.]

Breve historia de América [por] Carlos Pereyra. Madrid, M. Aguilar, editor, 1930. 748 p. illus., ports., maps. 19½ cm. [The author, a well-known Mexican historian, divides his work into nine parts: I, La revelación de un mundo nuevo; II, los pueblos aborígenes; III, descubrimientos, conquistas y fundaciones; IV, la organización de las sociedades americanas; V, difusión de la cultura; VI, cambios profundos; VII, la independencia política; VIII, constituciones y gobiernos; IX, del mar Caribe al de Behring. He includes numerous excerpts from other authors.]

La juventud legendaria de Bolívar [por] Carlos Pereyra. Madrid, M. Aguilar, editor, 1932. 523 p., 2 l. illus. (incl. maps, plan, facsim.) 20 cm. [This interesting biography of the Liberator covers the formative years of his youth, 1783 to 1812. After much research the author has made an addition to Bolivariana which will be helpful to students as well as interesting to the general reader.]

La música popular y los músicos célebres de la América Latina, por L. Cortijo A. Barcelona, Casa editorial Maucci [n. d.]. 446 p. illus., plates, reports. 21 cm. (Musicología latino-americana.) [The author discusses the origin of American music, various types of musical expression, and music in each of the countries. The text is supplemented by extracts from representative compositions and portraits of some composers.]

Ensayo de psicología de Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz y de estimación del sentido de su obra y de su vida para la historia de la cultura y de la formación de México, por Ezequiel A. Chávez. . . . Barcelona, Casa editorial Araluce [1931]. 454 p. pl. (port.) 24 cm. [A recent biography of Sor Juana, the famous Mexican

poet of the seventeenth century, written from a new angle. The author, a correspondent of the Spanish Academy and a well-known Mexican educator, bases his interpretation of her psychology on passages in her poems.]

Actes du Comité international des bibliothèques, 7^{me} session, Madrid, 28-29 mai 1934. La Haye, Martinus Nijhoff, 1934. 108 p. pl. 27½ cm. (Fédération internationale des associations de bibliothécaires. Publications. vol. VI.) [A full report of the recent Librarians' congress. In addition to the complete proceedings, this volume includes twenty-one annexes, many of which are individual reports on libraries in various European countries.]

New magazines.—The following magazines are new or have been received in the Library for the first time:

La Casa-habitación popular; boletín de la Comisión nacional de casas baratas. Buenos Aires, 1934. No. 1, julio de 1934. 93 p. Plates, tables, diagrs. 25x17 cm. Bi-monthly. Editor: Dr. G. Fernández Basualdo. Address: Maipú 1220, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Boletín del Comité de abogados de los bancos de la Capital federal; publicación periódica; doctrina, jurisprudencia y legislación bancarias. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año I, No. 1, enero-junio de 1934. 92 p. 27x18 cm. Semi-annually. Editor: Carlos D. Rojas.

América nueva; revista mensual. Buenos Aires, 1933. Año I, No. 2, mayo 30 de 1933. 88 p. illus., ports. 26x18 cm. Editor: Julia García Games. Address: Sarmiento 1546, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Mujeres de América; revista de pensamiento y vinculación femenina en los países ibero-americanos. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año 2, No. 9, mayo-junio de 1934. 64 p. pl. (port.) 24x17 cm. Bi-monthly. Editor: Nelly Merino Carvallo. Address: Moreno 2256, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

La revue argentine. Paris, 1934. 1^{er} année—No. 1, juin 1934. 44 p. 23x14 cm. Editor: Edmond de Narval. Address: 18, Rue des Pyramides, Paris (1^{er}).

Boletín informativo del Ministerio de relaciones exteriores. La Paz, 1933. Año I, No. 1, primer semestre 1933. 175 p. tables (part fold.) 23x16½ cm. Semi-annually. Editor: Jefe de propaganda del Ministerio de relaciones exteriores. Address: La Paz, Bolivia.

Patentes e marcas; revista mensal de propriedade industrial. São Paulo, 1934. Vol. V, fasc. 1, julho de 1934. 114 p. 23x15½ cm. Editor: Dr. João da Gama Cerqueira. Address: Travessa do quartel, 1, 1.º andar. Salas 6, 7 e 8—Esquina da Praça da Sé, São Paulo, Brasil.

Vanitas. São Paulo, 1934. Vol. IV, N. 40, abril 1934. 79 p. illus., 31x23 cm. Monthly. Editor: Nair Mesquita. Address: Rua Libero Badaró, 41 (Predio Sampaio Moreira), São Paulo, Brasil.

Momento; revista crítico-bibliográfica. Recife, 1934. Ano I, N. 4, agosto 1934. 24 p. illus. (ports.) 31½x24 cm. Editors: Aderbal Jurema e Odorico Tavares. Address: Conde da Boa Vista, 1274, Recife, Pernambuco, Brasil.

Boletim de estatística e informações. Vitória, 1934. Anno I, No. 10, julho 1934. 16 p. tables (part fold.) 33x24 cm. Monthly. Editado pelo "Serviço de estatística" da Secretaria da fazenda do estado do Espírito Santo. Address: Vitória, Brasil.

Revista de arte; publicación bimestral de la Facultad de bellas artes de la Universidad de Chile. Santiago de Chile, 1934. Año I, No. 1, junio-julio de 1934. 40 p. illus. 26½x25½ cm. Address; Huérfanos 1373, Santiago de Chile.

Boletín de relaciones exteriores (órgano de la Secretaría de estado de relaciones exteriores de la República Dominicana.) Santo Domingo, 1934. Año I, N^o. I, junio 1934. 30 p. 30½x24 cm. Address: Secretaría de estado de relaciones exteriores, Santo Domingo, Dominican Republic.

Mexican travel and trade; official publication of the Mexican government tourist bureau. New York, 1934. Vol. 1, No. 1, September, 1934. 16 p. illus., ports. 28x21½ cm. Editor: Luis Couttolenc. Address: 665 Fifth Ave., New York, N. Y.

Boletín bibliográfico de legislación fiscal. México, 1934. Septiembre de 1934 [No. 1] 22, 6 numb. 1. 28x21½ cm. Monthly. Editor: Dirección general de ingresos de la Secretaría de hacienda y crédito público. Address: México, D. F., México.

Perú; revista mensual ilustrada; órgano del consulado general en la República Argentina. Buenos Aires, 1934. Año I, núms. 2 y 3, junio-julio de 1934. 52 p. illus., ports. 29x20 cm. Editor: Consulado general del Perú. Address: 25 de mayo 33, Buenos Aires, Argentina.

Boletín oficial de la Dirección general de fomento. Lima, 1933. Año I, Núms. 3 y 4, julio a diciembre de 1933. 95 p. plates (ports.), fold. tab. 23x16 cm. Quarterly. Editor: Dirección general de fomento. Address: Lima, Peru.

Revista de la Federación rural. Montevideo, 1934. 3^a época, año 1, Núm. 1, julio de 1934. 112 p. illus., ports. 28½x20 cm. Address: Av. 18 de julio, 965, Montevideo, Uruguay. [Renewal of the publication of this *Revista*. The last issue was published in April 1931, as Año 13, Núm. 147.]



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

THE MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF COLOMBIA

In his annual message to Congress on July 20, 1934, President Enrique Olaya Herrera not only gave an account of the past year, but also summed up the accomplishments of his 4-year administration, which ended on August 7.

The Ministry of the Interior was completely reorganized, and two new bureaus, of justice and of prisons, were established. The Government, interested in improving its penal system, appointed in December 1933 the Committee on Penal and Penitentiary Matters, to act as an advisory body. One result of its studies was a bill which it drafted on prison and penitentiary management; this was passed and has already been put into effect. Public health measures were given preferential attention; special studies were made to determine the causes of the health problems requiring the immediate attention of the Government in certain zones. Child welfare, rural and port sanitation, and sanitary engineering were also stressed. The National Laboratory of Hygiene was enlarged by the construction of three modern buildings equipped to prepare drugs and biological products. Two important changes in the Civil Code were made by law 28 of 1932, dealing with the respective property rights of husbands and wives, and by law 40, dealing with the registration and recording of real property. Communication with the outlying regions of the country was given attention by the Ministry; wireless stations were established in frontier towns, navigation under the Colombian flag was instituted on the Amazon, Caquetá, and Putumayo Rivers and planned for others, and the postal service with the Pacific coast and with the Caribbean archipelago of San Andrés and Providencia was improved.

Among the salient international events mentioned by President Olaya were: the signing of the protocol which ended the Leticia incident; the visits of President Roosevelt of the United States and President-elect Ibarra of Ecuador; the commercial accord with Venezuela; the work of the mixed boundary commissions—with Brazil, Venezuela, and Panama; and the signing of the Saavedra-Lamas Anti-War Pact.

One of the first tasks of President Olaya's administration was the enactment of financial legislation designed to meet the economic crisis. (For a summary of such measures see the *BULLETIN* of the Pan American Union for October and November 1932.) The Leticia

incident, however, and the 10,000,000-peso bond issue floated in 1932 for national defense, counteracted to some degree the efficacy of that legislation. Nevertheless, funds with which to pay for the urgent public works projects carried out in the past four years were provided.

The Ministry of Industries based its program for the 1930-34 period on the encouragement of production, the encouragement and organization of commerce, and labor organization. It counted on three sources of production—the soil (agriculture, stock raising, and forests); the subsoil (mines and mineral deposits); and manufacturing. To prove that efforts to check the unnecessary importation of foodstuffs were successful, President Olaya cited the figures for such imports, the value of which had risen from 12,802,727 pesos in 1927 to 18,339,367 in 1929, but which fell to 2,202,451 pesos in 1933. The Agricultural, Industrial, and Mining Credit Bank, too, was of signal service through direct loans, regional credit branches, and intermediary co-operative societies. The number of agricultural experts was doubled, the number and practical value of agricultural experiment stations were increased, certain products were especially studied with a view to their introduction or further development, coffee growing and marketing were better regulated, and reclamation projects were carried out in the Department of Boyacá. The establishment of entomological services and the National Herbarium was also designed to assist agriculture. Much attention was paid to the creation of agricultural settlements in suitable regions, and several hundred resolutions were passed dealing with the subject.

Legislation dealing with subsoil products was also carefully planned, the Mining Code being rewritten. Gold production was stimulated by the high price of that commodity; in the first six months of 1934, 5,500,000 grams were produced, valued at 8,500,000 pesos. Definitive petroleum legislation was enacted in 1931.

Special attention was given to legislation regulating trade marks and patents, two important laws having been issued, one in 1931, the other in 1933, as well as decree 1707 in 1931. Civil aviation was also encouraged.

The Government showed its concern for the laboring classes by its cooperation with the city of Bogotá in the support of the Instituto de Acción Social. [The institute is a nonprofit-making organization created December 1932 primarily to provide cheap housing for the laboring class, but also to clean up the poorer quarters, lower the cost of necessities for workers, and provide protective measures, such as accident and sickness insurance, education, etc.] It took over and amplified the work of the Junta de Habitaciones para Obreros, created in 1919. Labor legislation has been amplified and extended, and great care has been taken to see that it is observed.

The Ministry of National Education not only continued its ordinary labors, but also prepared the necessary material and data for beginning a long-desired improvement in national instruction. Teachers colleges in four cities were given modern equipment; other measures for improving the quality of instruction were the establishment of information and vacation courses for teachers and special pedagogical libraries in the Ministry, in educational headquarters in the Departments, and in schools. The curriculums of the schools of medicine and allied subjects—dentistry, nursing, and pharmacy—in the university were revised; the close relation between the School of Medicine and the recently founded Radium Institute augurs well for the future. A conference of all the universities had been called, but had not yet met, to study the whole problem of higher education and to make university teaching uniform throughout the country. The reorganization of the National Library has brought to public attention its rich store of incunabula and other valuable books; when the new building, now being erected, is finished, the library will be installed in handsome and adequate quarters.

The Ministry of Posts and Telegraphs has increased the frequency and widened the extent of its services. The use of air mail has been encouraged, and radiotelegraphic communication improved, new stations having been opened in Pasto, Florencio, La Tagua, Leticia, Ocaña, Puerto Carreño, Turbo, San Andrés, and Providencia. The central station in Bogotá, which formerly had only long-wave equipment, now has two short-wave transmitters, one for the radiotelegraphic service, the other for broadcasting.

During the administration of President Olaya, many important public works projects were carried out. The Central Northern Highway, linking Bogotá to the Department of North Santander and to Venezuela, the Carare Highway, uniting the Departments of Antioquia and Boyacá, and the Popayán-Pasto Highway were completed, as were several lesser stretches. They totaled 1,147 kilometers (713 miles), and cost 7,846,081 pesos. Some dirt roads were also constructed, 381 kilometers (237 miles) in all, for which 559,108 pesos were spent. Two hundred kilometers (125 miles) of railways were added to the national system; of these 120 (Santa Marta-Fundación, 98 km, and Santander-Timba, 22 km) were acquired by purchase, 28 (the Barranquilla-Puerto Colombia line) by expropriation, and 52 (14 between the Puente Nacional station and Barbosa and 38 on the western trunk railway) by construction. The work of dredging and straightening the mouths of the Magdalena River was continued, important port works were completed at Cartagena and begun at Barranquilla (according to the contract they should be finished in November 1935), the river ports of Gamarra and Wilches

were improved, a dockyard at Santa Cruz, 91 miles above Barranquilla on the Magdalena River, was begun, and the reconstruction of Buenaventura, so disastrously swept by fire a few years ago, was well advanced. New waterworks to supplement the water supply of the capital had been contracted for and work commenced; it is expected to start supplying water in April 1936. The Administrative Council of the National Railways, established in 1931, has already accomplished much by adjusting freight rates, instituting combination all-inclusive rail and water rates from inland cities to seaports, and settling labor difficulties.

The Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce will complete its first year in November 1934. Among the duties it is expected to perform are the compilation of national agricultural statistics; a study of national and departmental agricultural societies, with a view to making them of greater service to the country; the fostering of regional and national agricultural assemblies; the organization in each Department of three advisory boards—a committee of coffee growers, a committee of stockraisers, and the local Farmers' Society; the organization of the National Federation of Stockraisers, similar to the Coffee-Growers' Federation, already functioning; and the establishment of more rural schools. It was also hoped that it would persuade the Departments to make appropriations to local agricultural societies; study the tariff; establish an experiment farm in each zone—cold, temperate, and hot—into which Colombia is divided (by altitude, not latitude); begin experiments with sheepraising; develop meteorological studies throughout the country; revise the curriculum of agricultural schools and those for veterinarians; organize two national expositions annually, one for agriculture in general, the other for stock; improve and adapt the National Radio Station; and make a compilation of all legislation dealing with agriculture and allied subjects.

In concluding, President Olaya spoke appreciatively of the cooperation received by the national Government from the Departments, which had constructed more than 1,865 miles of highways, erected public buildings, such as schools and hospitals, and promoted agriculture, education, and public welfare.—B. N.



INAUGURAL MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT OF ECUADOR

In a country which is willing to make a heroic effort to save itself no situation, however difficult, can be considered as desperate. Ecuador must make this effort, said the recently elected President, Dr. J. M. Velasco Ibarra, in his inaugural message to Congress on September 1, 1934. "Let us make of the Government a disinterested national

service", he said to Congress. "Let the Government live in close connection with popular understanding and feeling and let it clarify them, select the proper procedure for action, and put it into effect." Individual freedom is necessary to make this possible. "Freedom is creation, initiative, invention, reform. The slave is spiritless. He does not innovate. If we want a strong country let us develop free men. With freedom of conscience, freedom of thought, freedom of speech, freedom of suffrage we shall see how strength is developed, points of view are presented, and activity and efficiency sprout from the national soil." He drew a clear distinction between liberty and license and showed how an administration could harmonize liberalism and discipline.

Dr. Velasco Ibarra laid special emphasis on the need for free elections as a means of preventing political parties from perpetuating themselves in power. "Where popular suffrage is not respected", he said, "intranquillity reigns and rebellion is bred." Ignorance and poverty he found to be the greatest difficulties in the practice of popular suffrage. "The ignorant man lets himself be duped. The poor man sells his vote. But these difficulties are universal and are bound to disappear gradually as standards of education and living rise." He proposed that a certificate of primary education be made a requisite for voters. Public education, he said, should be lay; private schools will have perfect freedom in choosing their own educational methods. The Government will do everything within its means to promote education, especially rural education. He asked Congress that it pass legislation giving the State the sole right of issuing certificates of primary education and academic degrees and that laws now in effect should be amended so that private schools may be free to determine their courses of study, schedules, and teaching methods.

"The most acute problem now is the economic. National defense, laws for the protection of workmen, social welfare and education, all these mean money and all depend on the economic recovery of the country. Congresses are accused of incapacity to solve modern political and social problems. I do not believe in this accusation. The legislative bodies which have collaborated in the work of Doumergue and Roosevelt show that when there is patriotism, determination and a spirit of sacrifice representative assemblies are capable of solving difficulties and overcoming obstructions.

"Two and a half years ago the market value of our national currency was three times greater than its present value. A credit policy based on the issue of bills to meet fiscal needs has, in great part, devalued the currency in a manner never before known in our history. The national budget in the last few years has been balanced through loans

demanded from the Central Bank. In two years the national debt has increased from 8 to 20 million sucres. The banking system is disorganized and weakened. We have unsatisfied needs and a small army of unemployed, while at the same time there is a normal labor shortage."

He urged Congress to make a supreme effort to help the country. "What the country needs is a reduction in expenditures, efficient administration of public moneys, and a balanced budget." He asked Congress to increase in the new budget the salaries of minor employees, especially rural teachers, increase the number and salaries of policemen, suppress unnecessary posts and cut salaries above a certain amount. He urged the legislature to consider and amend if necessary the plan submitted by his Minister of Finance, Señor Victor Emilio Estrada, for the economic rehabilitation of the country. He requested especial attention to the project for agricultural reconstruction and the creation of cooperatives as well as the provisional stabilization of the currency and cancellation of the debt to the Central Bank. In accordance with the studies made by Señor Estrada he asked Congress to suppress the Tobacco and Alcohol State monopolies.

With reference to public works he requested that money be spent not on projects of purely local importance but on those which would benefit the country as a whole. The most important and productive were to be constructed first. He mentioned the Quito-Esmeraldas, Quito-Manabí, and Cuenca-Loja-Piedras highways as necessary for the geographic and economic unity of the country and the development of an internal market for the products of the country. He also considered it necessary to complete the sanitation of Guayaquil and to find an easy, fast, and safe system of communication between Ibarra and San Lorenzo. He said that every effort would be made to erect a building for the Colegio Vicente Rocafuerte in Guayaquil and a capitol in Quito. The profits obtained through the stabilization of the currency would be used toward public works.

With respect to the boundary question with Peru the President said: "I want to speak frankly of the boundary difficulty which we have with Peru, our sister to the south. When I had the honor of visiting Peru I found in the people, the intellectuals and the President, General Benavides, good will for a rapid and equitable settlement with Ecuador. . . . I have reason to hope that Ecuador and Peru, putting international questions above internal politics, will soon reach a friendly and equitable settlement in which the vital interests of both countries are taken into account and the zones indispensable for their economic and commercial development recognized to each country. . . . Any reasonable sacrifice in a settlement would be more than compensated by economic and juridical solidarity in the future."

President Ibarra's administration will try to improve the condition of the working classes in the country and in the city. "Let us leave out names behind which hypocrisy often hides. The essentials of the social question are the following: Work is a duty, work is the source of all civilization, all who work are entitled to the means which will enable them to lead a comfortable and decent existence, and because of human solidarity the State must help the weak."

CULTURAL RAPPROCHEMENT BETWEEN ARGENTINA AND OTHER LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

On July 5, 1934, the Institute of Latin American Culture was formally opened at a ceremony held in the College of Philosophy and Letters of the University of Buenos Aires. The institute had been created a year before by resolution of the board of directors of the college. In an editorial the following day, *La Nación* of Buenos Aires commented as follows:

"The new organization proposes to accomplish a task as vast as it is concrete: to join on the higher plane of humanistic culture all the Ibero-American nations. With the establishment of a chair devoted to the study and the exposition of the literature of the Spanish speaking nations of America, the College of Philosophy and Letters had already anticipated this friendly gesture; but now, with the opening of the institute, it broadens and strengthens that purpose. . . . Under the auspices of the University of Buenos Aires, therefore, there will exist a center for collecting the past cultural manifestations of the countries most akin to our own which, illogically enough, are not those which are best known to each other. . . . The Ibero-American civilization should interest us as something peculiarly our own, and a direct and continuous knowledge of it—not, as hitherto, information received sporadically after percolating through Europe—is now an inescapable need. We form part of that civilization by our geographic situation, by our predominant race, by language, and by history, and to ignore it is like ignoring a part of ourselves."

On the same day the new Argentine-Brazilian Cultural Institute began its activities by a lecture given in the Medical School by Dr. Gregorio Aráoz Alfaro on the late Dr. Miguel Couto, whom he called "the prince of Brazilian medicine."

On the 11th of the month a delegation from the institute, headed by Dr. Rodolfo Rivarola, its president, left for Rio de Janeiro to greet the newly established sister organization there, the Brazilian-Argentine Institute, in which the Argentine Ambassador, Señor Ramón J. Cárcano, had taken a great interest. The group was received by a delegation from the Brazilian organization, which

included Dr. Rodrigo Octavio, its president, Dr. Cândido de Oliveira, the president of the university, and representatives of cultural and learned societies.

In the library of the Itamaraty Palace, on July 18, an extraordinary session of the institute was held in honor of the visitors, under the chairmanship of Dr. Cavalcanti de Lacerda, the Minister of Foreign Affairs. At the close of the meeting, all present signed the statutes of the institute, as charter members.

Several members of the Argentine delegation gave addresses before other Brazilian cultural organizations.



FEMINISM

WOMAN SUFFRAGE.—The question of granting suffrage to women has received favorable action in two South American countries during this year. On July 16, the new constitution of Brazil was promulgated in which it is definitely stated, "Brazilians of either sex, over 18 years of age, who have registered according to law, have the right to vote" (Art. 108), and "Registration and voting are obligatory for men and for women holding salaried public office . . ." (Art. 109).

Elections were to be held on October 9, 1934, for senators and deputies to the National Legislature and for representatives to State constituent assemblies. About 2,000,000 voters were expected to cast their ballots.

On January 15, 1934, President Alessandri of Chile signed law no. 5357 dealing with the organization and government of municipalities. The law received special notice because it provides for two registers, the general register for men, in which duly qualified citizens are listed as voters in presidential, congressional, and municipal elections, and the municipal register, open to Chilean women and to foreigners, both men and women, provided they have lived more than five consecutive years in the country and have fulfilled the requirements for entry in the general register. Candidates for the honorary office of *regidor* (alderman) must be Chileans, eligible as voters, and have lived in the commune for more than one year (art. 56). The law specifically states that women may be elected as *regidores*.

According to the law, registration was to begin within 120 days following its promulgation and to last for 60 consecutive days; the President was authorized to call municipal elections within 120 days after the registration had become effective.

The registration began on May 15, 1934. Although the first time that women were allowed to register, it was not the first time that such a right, to a more limited degree, had been acknowledged. In 1931 a decree-law (no. 320 of May 20) provided that there should be

three registers: the general one, for Chilean men; one for property owners, for Chilean men and women and resident foreign men who paid real estate taxes; and one of license holders, for Chilean men and women and resident foreign men who were licensed to practice a profession, trade, or business. Residents were privileged to be enrolled in as many of the three as they were eligible, although not more than once in the same register. Each registration entitled the voter to one ballot in municipal elections.

The following February a decree was issued calling for an extraordinary municipal registration, beginning March 1, but no elections followed. The registration of 1934, therefore, may be truly said to mark an era in Chile.

In preparation for women's exercise of the suffrage, the Department of Cultural Extension of the Central University in Santiago offered a special course of 14 lectures for women, given by the president of the university and other outstanding authorities during the month of July.

Registration during the first three weeks was lighter than had been expected. The total number of registrations throughout the republic in that period was 73,999, of whom 64,121 were men, 7,513 women, and 2,365 foreigners.

In an editorial published soon after registration began, *El Mercurio* of Santiago said:

"In the approaching municipal elections foreigners and women will have the right to vote. It is a wise and timely innovation worthy of the warmest approval.

"The foreigner who makes Chile his second country and the country of his children, cannot be indifferent to the various ups and downs of community life. . . . Unconnected with and uninterested in domestic politics or concerned only with efficiency and honesty of administration, he may be a moderating factor of great importance if from the very beginning he decides to exercise this right which the law, so opportunely and justly, confers upon him. . . .

"As for the vote for women, we have expressed our opinion on more than one occasion clearly and openly. In a period of social dissolution the granting of that right to women will be the firmest guarantee of order and the maintenance of society. In city government our women will have an opportunity to make felt their admirable good sense, their undeniable administrative ability, and their spirit of order and of economy. . . .

"The registration of foreigners and of women is a cause for relief and for hope to all who wish honest, orderly, and distinguished government."

WOMAN LEGISLATOR IN ARGENTINA.—The local elections held in the Province of San Juan, Argentina, on Sunday, July 22, were of special interest because they marked the first appearance of women

voters in the Republic. San Juan is the only political subdivision in Argentina where women have the vote. Moreover, Dr. Ema Acosta, a candidate of the National Democratic Party, was elected to the provincial legislature, being the first woman to hold such an office in the country. Dr. Acosta, a young lawyer, was described in *La Nación* of Buenos Aires at the time of the election as being of "a gentle but energetic character. Talking with her one has a vision of tomorrow's struggle and of the future of the Province."

Born and educated in La Rioja, she studied law in San Juan, receiving her degree in 1926. After she had obtained her doctorate in Buenos Aires and returned to San Juan, she was appointed assistant district attorney by the Governor. The following year, however, she resigned because she was not in agreement with administration policies.

Dr. Acosta has expressed her desire to secure protective legislation for mothers and children, and her interest in employment and the minimum wage, in public health—especially antituberculosis campaigns—and in the reform of the local legal codes so as to provide better for the needs and rights of women.

NICARAGUAN WOMEN OFFICIALS.—According to reports in the press of the United States, President Sacasa of Nicaragua appointed in August two women to posts in the consular service of the Republic. They are Sra. Irma Tefel de Argüello, vice consul in Virginia, and Srta. Chilita Romero, counselor of the consulate, San Diego, Calif.

WOMAN MAYOR.—From *Brazil*, published by the Brazilian American Association in New York, the following item has been taken:

"The new constitution of Brazil provides universal suffrage for Brazil. Prior to its ratification, however, the State of Maranhão has the distinction of having named the first woman to a high public office in the entire territory of Brazil. Senhorita Joanna da Rocha Santos has been appointed by the State's Federal Interventor to be the first citizen of São João dos Patos. The mayoress, known for her beauty as well as for her more prosaic business talents, drew up a three-point platform consisting of organization of the laboring classes, improved educational facilities, and more and better roads. Having settled the first point without apparent difficulty, she promptly donated her pay as mayoress to overcome the obstacles presented by the second. The road-building program was put before the State and when the results of her other efforts became known, money was provided without delay so that work is progressing on roads to connect her city with other important centers, the whole task being supervised by the Mayoress herself.

"The 'Senhorita Prefeita'—a new term in Brazilian official titles—is also known as the 'Cotton Queen' because, due to her keen business sense, she has accumulated quite a fortune in the cotton industry. Besides her official duties she is associated with a large commercial firm."

DOMINICAN ELECTION DAY.—As was noted in the BULLETIN for February 1934, President Trujillo of the Dominican Republic announced that on the next election day women would be allowed to appear at the polls and indicate whether or not they wished the suffrage. On May 16, therefore, 96,000 women (according to figures published in the local press) presented themselves to cast their trial ballots. The Pan American Union has not yet been informed whether that number will be considered impressive enough to warrant amending the constitution to grant women the vote.

BRIEF NOTES

INTERNATIONAL BRIDGE TO CONNECT BRAZIL AND ARGENTINA

The rapprochement between Argentina and Brazil so auspiciously inaugurated by the visit of President Justo to Rio de Janeiro last year continues to bear fruit. An international bridge connecting the two countries is to be constructed over the Uruguay River. This has been hailed as of "inestimable political, social and economic value to the two nations." The project took shape in an exchange of notes between the two Governments providing for the appointment of a mixed commission, with headquarters in Buenos Aires, to select the site for the bridge, make the necessary preliminary surveys, draw up a plan of the project, and estimate its cost. The notes were exchanged in Rio de Janeiro on June 15, 1934, the commissioners were to be appointed by the respective Governments within 30 days, and within 45 days they were to meet in the Argentine capital.

ARGENTINE MISSION VISITS BRAZIL

At the suggestion of the Argentine Ambassador to Brazil, Dr. Ramón Cárcano, the Unión Industrial Argentina sent a mission to Brazil last June headed by its president, Señor Luis Colombo, to study the means of increasing trade between the two countries. In Rio de Janeiro they met at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs with an official commission appointed by the Brazilian Government, were received by President Getulio Vargas and his cabinet, and fêted by the leading industrial, agricultural, and commercial institutions of the city. The informal conversations held between the two commissions are expected to pave the way for an intensive reciprocal trade between the neighboring Republics.

NEW BRAZILIAN MINING AND WATER CODES

In accordance with its policy of nationalizing and controlling the natural resources of the country the Brazilian Government has issued a Mining and a Water Code by means of executive decrees dated July 10, 1934. The exploitation of mineral deposits and sources of hy-

draulic energy is subject to permits and concessions to be granted only by the Federal Government and then solely to Brazilians or to enterprises organized in Brazil. Exception is made of mines and hydraulic developments already in operation, deposits of minerals proper for construction, and waterfalls generating a power of less than 50 kilowatts which are developed for the exclusive use of the owners thereof. The ownership of mineral deposits and waterfalls and other sources of hydraulic energy is declared distinct from that of the land where they are found. Known mineral deposits belong to the owner of the soil, unknown deposits to the nation. Waterfalls in streams flowing through private property belong to the riparian owners, those existing in public waters of common use or dominion, to the nation. In both cases, however, the property right is limited to preference in obtaining a concession for the development of the mine or waterfall and to receiving a portion of the profits derived therefrom if the concession is granted to another person. Both codes were published in the *Diario Official* for July 20, 1934.

ELECTRIFICATION OF THE CENTRAL RAILWAY OF BRAZIL

A contract has been signed between the Brazilian Government and a British concern for the electrification of certain lines of the Central Railway of Brazil, at an expenditure of 180,218 contos or about \$15,300,000. The contract provides for the electrification of the suburban zone in Rio de Janeiro, including the Maritima and São Diogo stations; the Santa Cruz and Paracambi branches; and the main line as far as Barra do Pirahy. The contract was approved by decree No. 24614 issued on July 7, 1934.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CRUSADE IN BRAZIL

The National Educational Crusade is an organization started in Rio de Janeiro to fight illiteracy. Although its early efforts were made largely in the capital and other parts of the Federal District, it has been extending its field of action to other sections of Brazil as rapidly as possible. For several months during 1933-34, an extensive campaign was waged in the northern State of Ceará, under the leadership of Senhor Aloysio de Barros Leal. In a report made on his return, he expressed appreciation for the support given to the work by the State government. In the city of Ceará a State board was organized, on which both the Federal Interventor and the Director of Public Instruction accepted positions. From the capital Senhor de Barros Leal went inland, visiting more than 20 cities and a number of *fazendas*, or large farms. In many of the former, local organizations were established and schools started, and on the latter, schools for the children of tenant farmers were provided. Senhor de Barros Leal returned to Rio de Janeiro enthusiastic over the auspicious commencement of the work in Ceará.

NECROLOGY

SOLÓN POLO.—The sudden death of Dr. Solón Polo, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Peru, on September 4, 1934, was a great shock to his fellow countrymen and to his many friends throughout the Americas. Even before receiving his doctorate from the Law School in 1900, Dr. Polo had been connected with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, an association which he continued, except for brief intervals, until his death. He had served as chief of the Diplomatic Bureau, counsellor of the Ministry, and several times as minister. He was recognized as the foremost Peruvian authority on international affairs, and his association with the Archivo Especial de Límites proved of inestimable value to his country. In 1922 he served as counsellor to the Peruvian delegation to the Chilean-Peruvian Conference held in the Pan American Union. From 1909–11 he was minister of Peru in Bolivia. Dr. Polo was a vice president of the Geographical Society of Lima, a member of the American Academy of Social and Political Sciences, and had received many honors from foreign powers, including the French, Italian, and Portuguese Governments and the Papacy.

ENRIQUE VILLEGAS.—One of the most brilliant statesmen and diplomats of Chile, Dr. Enrique Villegas, died suddenly in London on July 29, 1934. Almost ever since receiving his law degree in 1897, he had participated in public life. He was elected several times to the national Congress, and under President Barros Luco served as Minister of Foreign Affairs. From 1916 to 1929 he was minister, later ambassador, to Italy, leaving Rome to be the first Chilean ambassador to Great Britain. Since 1924 Dr. Villegas had been a delegate from his country to the League of Nations, where he was honored by election to the presidency of the Council of the League. A year before his death he had resigned his diplomatic post in London to become the representative of the Chilean nitrate industry in Europe, although as chairman of his country's delegation to the League of Nations he retained the rank of ambassador.

ÁNGEL M. SOLER.—On June 28, 1934, Dr. Ángel M. Soler, a noted penologist, died in Santo Domingo at the age of 61. Dr. Soler, a pupil of the famous educator Hostos, started his career as professor of mathematics in the normal school, showing great ability as a teacher. After deciding upon law as a profession and having been admitted to the bar, he was appointed professor of penal law first in the law school (Instituto Profesional) and later in the university, after its establishment in 1913.

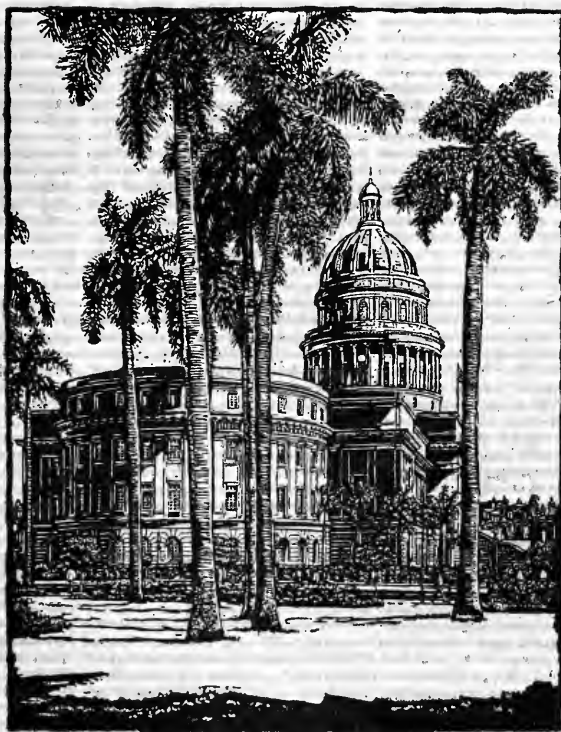
Dr. Soler had served in the cabinet, holding at different times the portfolios of Foreign Affairs, of the Treasury and Commerce, and of the Interior, War, and the Navy.



ARGENTINA BOLIVIA BRAZIL CHILE COLOMBIA

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THE CAPITOL, HABANA

DECEMBER

1934

MEXICO HONDURAS GUATEMALA

COSTA RICA CUBA DOMINICAN REPUBLIC ECUADOR EL SALVADOR

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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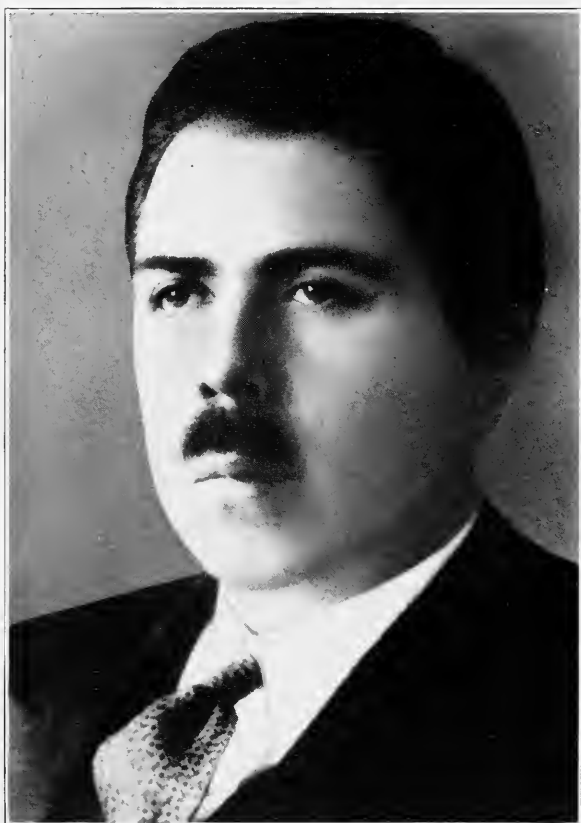
THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, was established in the year 1890 in accordance with resolutions passed at the First International Conference of American States, held at Washington in 1889-90, and presided over by James G. Blaine, then United States Secretary of State. Its work was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference at Mexico in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth at Habana, Cuba, in 1928; and the Seventh at Montevideo, Uruguay, in 1933. It is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American republics. Its purpose is to develop closer cultural, commercial, and financial relations between the Republics of the American Continent and to promote friendly intercourse, peace, and better understanding. It is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and the representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized so as to carry out the purposes for which it was created. Special divisions have been created on foreign trade, statistics, finance, and agricultural cooperation, all of which maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries, members of the Union. Particular attention is devoted to the development of closer intellectual and cultural relations among the nations of the American Continent, and administrative divisions have been created for this purpose.

The Pan American Union serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

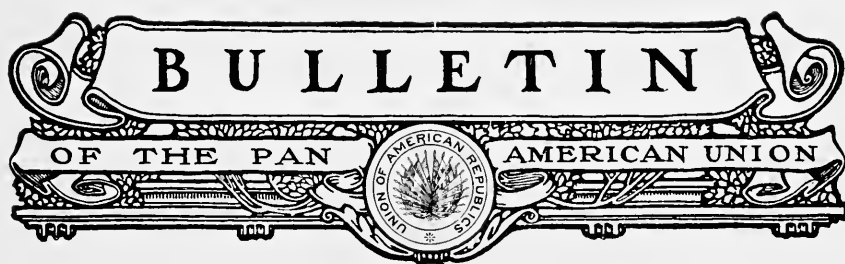
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HIS EXCELLENCY GENERAL LÁZARO CÁRDENAS.

General Cárdenas will be inaugurated President of Mexico December 1,
1934, for a 6-year term.



GENERAL LÁZARO CÁRDENAS PRESIDENT OF MEXICO

IN the presidential elections held in Mexico on July 1, 1934, Gen. Lázaro Cárdenas was chosen Chief Magistrate of the nation for the six-year term December 1, 1934, to November 30, 1940.

General Cárdenas was born on May 21, 1895, in the picturesque town of Jiquilpán, on Lake Chapala in the State of Michoacán. There he received his early education, but the death of his father made it necessary for him to go to work when only eleven to support his mother and seven younger brothers and sisters. At one time he worked in a printing office, where he acquired a taste for reading.

In 1913 he enlisted in the revolutionary ranks, and his military genius promptly asserted itself. By the following year he had risen to the rank of captain, and he was steadily advanced thereafter until in 1931 he was commissioned general of division, the highest rank in the army.

In 1920 General Cárdenas was appointed provisional governor of Michoacán, his first civil post. In 1928 he was elected governor of the same state, and served for four years. His administration was distinguished by efforts to improve the conditions of rural inhabitants and the working classes. During part of this period he was head of the National Revolutionary Party.

General Cárdenas also brings to his high office experience in national administration, for twice he has served as a member of the cabinet. From August to October 1931 he was Minister of the Interior, and from January to May 1933, Minister of War. From the latter position he resigned to become a candidate for the presidency.

In an address to the nation delivered on the eve of the election, General Cárdenas summarized the policies which he proposed to carry out during his administration. Among other things, he said:

"The present situation of the majority of the rural families throughout our country is sufficient justification for promptly satisfying their needs by speeding up grants and restoration of ejidos, putting an end to the monopolization of land, and bringing about better cultivation of the fields. But the final solution of the problem not only demands that land be provided, but also makes it imperative that farm credit should be increased, new irrigation works and highways built, and modern systems of farming introduced; cooperative societies should also be organized to put a stop to speculation by middlemen. By such measures an attempt will be made not only to have agricultural production provide the necessities of life for the farmers, but also to prove by its quality and quantity that the distribution of land gives better results than the former latifundia system, founded on exploitation of the workers. . . .

"The situation of industrial workers calls for fundamental alterations in the labor code, as proposed in the Six-Year Plan; steps in this direction have already been taken by the present administration, to the satisfaction of workers throughout the nation. . . .

"And following the scheme outlined in the Six-year Plan, the organization of cooperative societies throughout the Republic will be stimulated. By this means the laboring classes will be increasingly better fitted to control the sources of wealth and the means of production, the ideal of the socialist doctrine of the revolution.

"I promise to fulfill the duty laid upon every son by the fatherland, that of zealously safeguarding our national sovereignty and maintaining our cordial relations with all nations, especially with those allied to us by racial background and economic interests."



YERBA MATÉ IN THE UNITED STATES

By His Excellency Dr. ENRIQUE BORDENAVE

Minister of Paraguay in the United States

IN recent months there has been much discussion concerning yerba maté, or Paraguayan tea. The press has published articles and notes calling the attention of the public to this beverage, characteristic of various South American countries, and widely cultivated in the countries of the Río de la Plata.

On various occasions efforts have been made to find the best way of extending the consumption of maté in the United States, but in spite of its excellent qualities the desired increase has not taken place. The same thing has happened in other parts of the world. Momentary enthusiasms, passing fashions, gave a fleeting hope of a greater sale for Paraguayan tea, but nevertheless maté is still, after centuries, one of the few excellent food products that have not acquired a world market.

Now, however, the moment seems to have arrived when this product of the forests and the plains around the sources and along the upper course of the Paraná and Uruguay Rivers will secure a definite place in the United States.

Perhaps former efforts to make maté better known were not sufficiently strong and persevering, or possibly a full and exact knowledge of the qualities which make it one of the most highly prized tonics and stimulants used by man was lacking. Above all, no one had hitherto what has now been obtained—that is, the effective aid and the intelligent and cordial cooperation of the American Government.

The Argentine Embassy and the Paraguayan Legation, which have always tried to inform Americans about maté, for a long time did not go beyond intermittent advertising and negotiations with private firms.

But a few months ago they both began diplomatic negotiations with the Department of State for the purpose of arranging to have maté adopted as part of the rations of the American Army and Navy. I have the honor of reporting that the negotiations were met with the kindly interest and intelligent understanding with which the administration of President Roosevelt meets and investigates everything tending to unite the nations of this continent. The General Staff and other authorities then started the necessary formalities, and as a result it has just been decided to begin the experiments that are

expected to bring about the adoption of maté for use by the armed forces of the United States.

Moreover, the interest of the public and of business men, reflecting that shown by the Government, has greatly increased. Important centers for the sale of maté have been established in all parts of the United States. A short time ago I received a letter from a firm in Los Angeles announcing that its sales of maté exceeded 30 tons a month and would soon reach 100. Other companies in New York,

A 5-YEAR-OLD YERBA
MATÉ TREE.

From the leaves of this tree, indigenous to Paraguay though grown in Argentina and Brazil as well, is made a beverage extensively consumed in many South American countries. The popularity of the so-called "Paraguayan tea" is expected to increase in the United States as a result of a publicity campaign now under way.



San Francisco, and other cities likewise tell me that their sales are now mounting all the time.

In view of these facts it is well to form an idea of the consequences that the importation of maté into this country will soon bring about. For this purpose the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, which has often published interesting reports on the *Ilex paraguayensis* and which devotes itself to problems of importance in inter-American life, is an appropriate vehicle.

Yerba maté is an indigenous Paraguayan product. The fertile soil of my country is the only place in which this magnificent tree grows

wild, absorbing minerals from underground and transforming into vitamins the rays of the sun which shine upon the treetops of the forest. Centuries ago the astute Indians discovered the extraordinary virtues of *caá* in the maté-growing region of Paraguay near the falls of the Guairá, Nacunday, and Iguazú, the largest and the most potentially powerful in the world.

The Spanish conquerors were not slow in becoming acquainted with the almost miraculous powers of the infusion drunk by the Indians. The fabled Fountain of Youth which lured Ponce de León from place to place in Florida was perhaps a remote echo of the energizing effects which *caá* produces in the body and soul of men. Later, maté began to be cultivated in Brazil, and not many years ago it was introduced into Argentina.

But in all these three countries there remains almost unpopulated a vast and splendid extent of territory, perhaps one of the most suitable as to flora, climate, and general conditions for settlement by the white race. A great new market for maté would be like a reveille signaling the opening to busy civilized life of this still dormant region, near the mighty rivers and the marvelous latent energy of the cataracts.

Three countries would benefit by a large consumption of maté in the United States, in ways and to a degree which now cannot even be surmised. How unsuspected are the consequences brought about by the intercommunication of nations! One pound of maté bought in the United States may mean a book for the settler's child or a hearthstone for a modest and happy home in the great forests. The region adjacent to the Paraná, Iguazú, and Uruguay Rivers may come in time to be who knows how stupendous an emporium! Thence the white coal of the waterfalls may send energy to move the wheels of transportation and industry in all the southern half of South America. But first the forests must be opened, and this will be done if a sale for maté calls the settler to the region where it grows.

The people of the United States will also gain by a wider use of maté. It is a beverage which really needs no recommendation, for scientists, statesmen, travelers, and educators, all those who are accustomed to drink it, are unanimous in approving and praising it.

The following is a comparative analysis:

In 1,000 parts—	Green tea	Black tea	Coffee	Maté
Essential oils.....	7.90	6.00	0.41	0.01
Chlorophyll.....	22.20	18.14	13.66	62.00
Resin.....	22.20	36.40	13.66	20.69
Tannin.....	178.00	128.80	16.39	12.28
Theine or caffeine.....	4.30	4.60	2.66	2.50
Coloring extracts and material.....	161.00	390.00	270.67	238.83
Fiber and cellulose.....	175.80	283.20	171.83	180.00
Ash.....	85.60	51.10	25.61	38.10

In this table it is interesting to observe that maté, which has the smallest proportion of stimulant and of essential oils, contains the largest amount of chlorophyll, the transforming agent so closely studied by modern dieticians and biochemists.

Here in the United States maté can be of incalculable benefit. Paraguayan tea, in the opinion of great physiologists, is the most healthful beverage known. It is a tonic and stimulant for the nerves and muscular system as well as for the heart, but it does not affect directly the nerve and heart centers, cause or increase any neuropathic conditions or a state of hyperasthenia. It cheers and clears the mind; it stimulates intestinal action; and it promotes circulation and the digestive processes.

An authority has described its beneficial action as follows:

Maté can be a valuable and effective agent for preventing the increasingly evil effects of the dizzy rush observed in all social classes, especially in cities in which the intensity of the struggle for existence does not permit sufficient rest of mind and body.

Maté does not directly affect the nerve centers as do coffee and tea, but rather localizes its action in the muscular system and vital organs; it does not cause sleeplessness or overstimulate the nerves and heart.

Maté is destined to play a very important part in the health of people in general, above all in the campaign against alcoholism. Its action is similar to the first effects of alcohol, but it has none of the evil consequences of the latter. Maté produces a feeling of well-being, without the later reactions caused by liquor, and furthermore, it has been observed that a person who takes maté is not so fond of alcoholic beverages and drinks them with more moderation.

The French scientist Marvaud explains this phenomenon by the fact that maté produces the feeling of satisfaction which characterizes the first stages of drinking.

When President Theodore Roosevelt made his well-known expedition through the unpopulated forest region of the Amazon, one of the members of his party was Father J. A. Zahm, C. S. C., Ph. D., who on his return wrote a book entitled *Through South America's Southland*. From this book I quote the following paragraphs:

This kind of maté is put up in small tin cans, and I am greatly surprised that it has not yet been introduced into the United States. I am convinced it would, as soon as known, become immensely popular. It is always ready for use and easily served. Besides this, it has all the virtues of tea and coffee and none of their deleterious qualities. For persons of weak and delicate constitutions it is the most invigorating beverage imaginable and leaves no disagreeable after-effects. For use in hospitals it is invaluable. As a temperance drink it is non-pareil. It has preserved a large part of South America from the debasing evils of alcoholism, and I can conceive of no more powerful aid to the cause of temperance in our country than the popularizing of a beverage that has proved so efficacious among millions of people in our sister continent.

Chemists and physicians who have made a special study of the effects of maté on the human system are all loud in its praise. They recommend it both as a tonic and as a stimulant, and declare that it is destined to become a favorite



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.



Courtesy of C. R. Cameron.

HARVESTING MATÉ.

Upper: After any creepers or vines are removed from the trunks, the smaller branches are cut. Sometimes ladders are used, as in this natural grove under cultivation. Lower: The sheaves of maté are weighed before being toasted, dried, blended, and aged.

prescription in hospitals for the sick and the convalescent. It is less of an excitant than tea or coffee. Unlike these two beverages, it does not cause insomnia, neither does it, like coffee, induce perturbations of the heart. It is the best substitute known for alcoholic drinks of all kinds and is particularly recommended to those suffering from debility or neurasthenia.

Dr. Escudero of Buenos Aires, one of the best-known figures in Argentine medicine and a recognized authority on nutrition, states that maté contains valuable vitamins as well as an appreciable amount of iron and calcium. Apparently maté is an excellent solvent of uric acid and therefore beneficial as a preventive of rheumatism. Moreover, because it prevents hunger it is believed that its suitable use helps to combat obesity.



COLONIAL SILVER MATÉS AND BOMBILLAS.

In South America yerba maté is traditionally served in so-called matés, which may be simply gourds, plain or ornamented, or elaborately fashioned cups of silver. The tea is sipped through bombillas, tubes with a strainer at one end.

Dr. W. L. Schurz writes in *Paraguay—a Commercial Handbook*, published by the United States Department of Commerce:

The effects of yerba drinking are stimulative, without having any perceptible deleterious reaction on the system. It fortifies the body against cold, fatigue, and hunger, and its use is undoubtedly responsible for much of the remarkable endurance of which the Paraguayan peon of the country districts is capable. Stopping only long enough to take an occasional “maté” he can remain on horseback or at the most arduous work in the forest for many hours at a time without further rest or nourishment. It is a drink deserving of a much wider field than it now enjoys.

Yerba maté, as was said in the beginning of this article, is produced in Argentina, Brazil, and Paraguay, but the latter has the privilege of growing the best. This fact is widely recognized; in support of it,

the fact may be cited that Paraguayan maté is used in mixtures with the inferior types from Argentina and Brazil to prepare the grades quoted at the higher prices.

According to the formulas of the Argentine Ministry of Agriculture the commercial grades of maté are made up as follows:

I. Extra, 50 percent Paraguayan maté, 30 percent Argentine maté, 20 percent Brazilian maté.

II. Good, 50 percent Argentine maté, 20 percent Paraguayan maté, 20 percent Brazilian maté from Paraná, 10 percent Brazilian maté from Rio Grande.

III. Inferior, 80 percent Brazilian maté from Rio Grande, 20 percent Brazilian maté from Paraná.

The reason for this grading is that in South America maté is classified as follows in a descending scale as to quality, strength, and aroma:

1. Paraguayan maté;
2. Matto Grosso maté (Brazil);
3. Misiones maté (Argentina);
4. Paraná maté (Brazil);
5. Santa Catharina maté (Brazil);
6. Rio Grande maté (Brazil).

The superiority of Paraguayan maté is not due to any visible difference in the trees, for these are exactly alike; nor is it due to methods of preparation. It is indubitable that the causes of its superiority arise purely from climate and soil conditions. This is further proved by the fact that even in Paraguay there are privileged districts producing maté unequaled by that of other regions.

Summing up, I may say that increased consumption of maté in the United States will be beneficial in two ways: One, by promoting the health of the consumer in this country, and the other by bringing population, civilization, and welfare to the almost uninhabited regions of three sister nations, increasing their purchasing power and creating centers of progress.

The cooperation of President Roosevelt's administration, because of the clearness of vision which it reveals and the noble spirit which inspired it, is good evidence of his policy of brotherly and intelligent solidarity with the nations of this continent.



HIGHWAYS IN COLOMBIA

By Dr. JOSÉ M. SÁENZ L.

Commercial Attaché of the Colombian Legation in Washington

ONE of the most interesting recent accomplishments of Colombia in highway construction is the completion of its section of the Simón Bolívar Highway which joins the capitals of what was once the Liberator's Greater Colombia and now forms Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela. Other new roads are also of much economic importance, and may be reviewed to give an idea of the progress being made in this important realm of activity.

During the administration of Dr. Olaya Herrera, which ended last August, the Ministry of Public Works introduced two important measures to improve transportation conditions. The first was the creation of the Administrative Council of the National Railways, which immediately set about the task of organizing on a business basis the companies under its charge. Rates were lowered and administrative expenses lessened. The results were better than had been hoped for: companies which hitherto had operated with a deficit began to show a profit. The second measure was the passage of law 88 of 1931. The main purpose of this measure was to use available funds to assure the completion of roads of truly national importance, in order to avoid the dissipation of such money in less important works and to put an end to the subsidies given by the national government to the Departments for each mile of highway constructed.

The construction of highways in Colombia is extremely difficult because of the rugged and mountainous terrain. Often they must cross the triple cordillera of the Andes, surmounting great heights and skirting precipices. Construction presents knotty problems and enormous technical difficulties; many streams of water have to be crossed, calling for expensive bridges, walls, and so on. These conditions, as Dr. Alfonso Araujo pertinently noted in his report to Congress, "make the cost of highways in Colombia higher than that current in other countries where the terrain is easier, and require great skill in planning and executing."

The country may now boast of having three great trunk highways almost completed; these connect with each other and are complemented by railways and navigable rivers.

1. The western trunk highway starts from Rumichaca on the Ecuadorean border and crosses the Departments of Nariño, Cauca, Valle, Caldas, and Antioquia to Puerto Valdivia on the Cauca River; at

that point it will make connections with the Central Railway of Bolívar as far as Chinú; from Chinú the highway will continue to the port of Tolú on the Atlantic. Of this great main highway 671 miles, of which the Olaya administration constructed 145, are in use; only four sections, totaling 195 miles, remain to be built.

The trip over this road is extremely picturesque and interesting. Leaving Rumichaca for the north, the traveler passes in the first 80 miles through the towns of Ipiales, Espino, Tuquerres, and Pasto, the capital of the Department of Nariño, zigzagging up and down the steep slopes of the Andes where he may admire superb views, all the while being refreshed by breezes from the eternal snows. He passes



BOGOTÁ.

The western and eastern trunk highways converge in the highland capital of Colombia. At this busy intersection the colonial church of San Francisco contrasts with a modern hostelry.

through a continually changing panorama: here a cascade falling over a high precipice, or a profound chasm through whose depths runs a mysterious, shadowy river; there smoking peaks crowned with snow, the volcanoes of Galeras, Cumbal, and Purace, on whose well-tilled slopes dwell hard-working and hospitable people with their flocks and herds. The city of Pasto, redolent of times long past, is today on the threshold of a rapid expansion now that it is in communication with both the capital of the Republic and the Pacific Ocean by the Pasto-Diviso Highway and the Diviso-Tumaco Railway of Nariño.

From Pasto to Popayán the road continues for 175 miles through similar scenery. Popayán, the capital of the Department of La

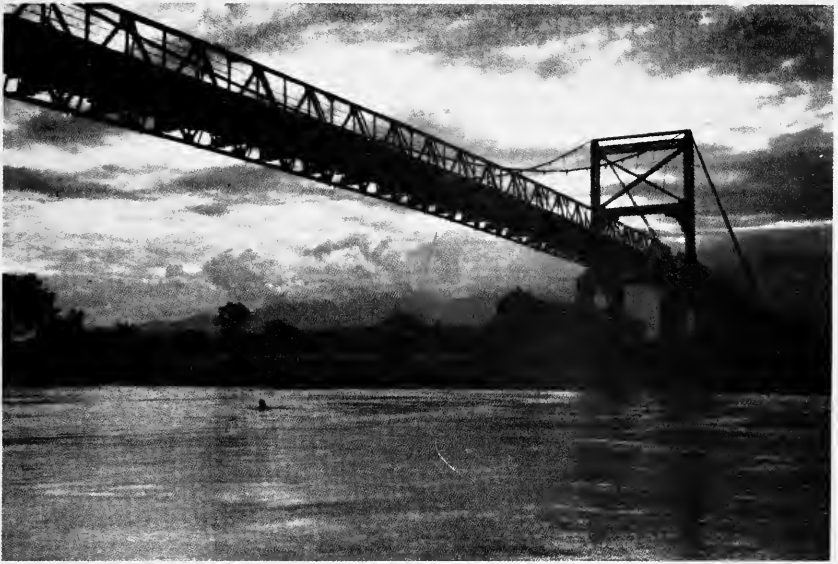
Cauca, is an aristocratic city and one of the oldest in South America, having been founded by Don Sebastián de Benalcázar, one of Pizarro's captains, in 1532. It still keeps its prestige as a noble Castilian city, and is the cradle of many of the most patrician families of Colombia. The Popayán-Caloto-Cali section, 63 miles long, goes on to Cali, the capital of the Department of El Valle, one of the most beautiful cities of Colombia, situated on the eastern slope of the western cordillera 3,280 feet above sea level and endowed with a delightful climate. It has justly been called the Sultana of El Valle. Its distinguished and hospitable society, its beautiful women, its ever-blue sky, all make it an enchanting city. From Cali to Cartago there are 130 miles of very



JORGE ISAACS PARK, CALI, COLOMBIA.

Cali, one of the most beautiful cities of Colombia, was the birthplace of Jorge Isaacs, a noted figure in Colombian literature, who is honored by this attractive park and monument.

good road traversing the whole length of the Cauca Valley, and passing through the cities of Palmira, Buga, Tuluá, and others which, although small, are none the less interesting. In Palmira there is an agricultural station where the flora of the whole Republic is studied and seeds and plants are distributed to all the Departments. The Cauca Valley is a true emporium of natural wealth and loveliness, with the most agreeable climate in the world. The landscape is incomparable, an ocean of green adorned now and then with clumps of bamboo and small palm groves which break the level plain. The Cauca River, which is navigable, flows from south to north through the entire length of the valley. The waters of other rivers and streams descend from the central and the western cordilleras to swell the volume of the Cauca



MOONLIGHT ON THE CAUCA RIVER.

The upper Cauca Valley, traversed by the highway from Cali to Cartago, is a continuous panorama of loveliness.

after they have irrigated and beautified the valley meadows. I regret that the limitations of this article do not allow me to expatiate on the beauty of this sea of exuberant green vegetation dotted with prosperous and happy villages, thanks to one of the mildest and most agreeable climates in the world.

Cartago—Pereira—Manizales—Sonsón—Medellín—120 miles through the Central Cordillera, with varied and delightful panoramas; there on the heights are the eternal snows of Tolima and of Ruiz, below is the vast stretch of the Cauca Valley, on every side are musical cascades and torrents which flow through dense forests. This part of the highway passes through a most rugged and difficult terrain and crosses one of the richest regions of Colombia, where the axe of the Antioquian cleared the woods for hundreds of coffee plantations. All praise to the noble inhabitants of Antioquia, the home of pioneers and the advance guard of progress who, armed only with their hatchets and with their knapsacks full of hopes and ambitions, have contributed as have no others to the progress and prosperity of Colombia. The whole region is covered with small coffee plantations where each owner runs the farm which assures his peace of mind; their total production represents half the exports of the precious berry. Manizales, the capital of the Department of Caldas, of comparatively recent establishment by settlers from Antioquia, is situated on the

central cordillera facing the snow-capped Ruiz; the chief coffee center of the region, it is a city with excellent prospects for the future because of its wealth and industry. It holds a real promise for the prosperity of Colombia. Pereira and Sonsón are also important and active coffee centers. Pereira is less than 60 years old, with a present population of at least 30,000 inhabitants; its straight and well-laid-out streets, its industrious population, and its business activity give promise that in the near future it will be one of the richest cities in the Republic. From Medellín, the capital of the Department of Antioquia, to Yarumal and Puerto Valdivia, it is 105 miles through



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IN THE COFFEE REGION OF COLOMBIA.

The marketing of coffee, the country's leading agricultural product, much of which is produced by the many small plantations, is facilitated by the new highways.

coffee plantations and villages settled by people of the same enterprising stock. The city of Medellín, the second in Colombia, lies in a picturesque little valley and enjoys an ideal climate and excellent water. Its cheerful red roofs and its lovely country houses invite to the tranquil, happy home life which is the reward of toil.

2. The central trunk highway, which may be said to begin at the river port of Caucajá on the Putumayo because navigation on the Putumayo, Orteguaza, and Caquetá Rivers is a part of this system, serves the Territory of Caquetá and the Departments of El Huila and Tolima as far as Girardot, where it takes advantage of the navigability of the Magdalena River down to El Banco, which is to



A MOUNTAIN ROAD.

The Quindío Pass is typical of much of the terrain encountered in planning the extensive road program of Colombia.

be the beginning of a highway to Riohacha, an Atlantic port. This great trunk highway now has 273 miles of road in use, distributed as follows: Caucajá-La Tagua, on the Caquetá, 15 miles. From La Tagua on the Caquetá, just below the point where the Orteguaza flows into it, to Venecia on the latter river, the journey is made upstream by boat; from Venecia to Baraya, the junction with the Tolima-Huila-Caquetá railway, the road passes through Florencia, the capital of the Territory of Caquetá, and Neiva, the capital of the Department of Huila, over 181 miles of highway cut through almost impenetrable woods and thrown across foaming rivers, spots of indescribable beauty where the imposing majesty of the Amazonian forests may be seen and admired. From Baraya one goes to Girardot by rail and thence to Bogotá by either rail or road. In this section lies the Riohacha-Valledupar section, of which 77 miles have been built; the rest at present is still on paper. From Valledupar to El Banco, a port on the Magdalena River, connected with Girardot by boat, the distance is 171 miles. The construction of the 196 miles of highway between Baraya and Caucaja was carried out during the last administration, thus joining by rail, highway, and water the vast regions of the Putumayo and the Amazon with the capital of the Republic.

3. The eastern trunk highway branches off the central highway at Girardot, and crosses the Departments of Cundinamarca, Boyacá, and South and North Santander, ending at the Venezuelan border; all of its 470 miles are actually in service. The main sections are Girardot–Fusagasugá–Bogotá, 83 miles; Bogotá–Tunja–Capitanejo, 224 miles; Capitanejo–Cúcuta, 153 miles; and Cúcuta–Simón Bolívar International Bridge, on the Venezuelan frontier, 10 miles. One hundred miles of this highway were built during the last presidential term.

The trunk highways just described are the main arteries of a considerable system containing many second-class roads, which all together total 988 miles now in use. The most important section of this system is that which puts the city of Armenia (Caldas) into direct communication with Bogotá, via Ibagué. This means that there is a road across the country from the Ecuadorean to the Venezuelan frontier, part of the Simón Bolívar highway connecting Quito, Bogotá, and Caracas.



SUMMARY OF ARCHAEOLOGICAL WORK IN THE AMERICAS 1931-1932-1933

II. MIDDLE AMERICA¹

By FRANS BLOM

Director, Department of Middle American Research, The Tulane University of Louisiana, New Orleans

THE Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo, Uruguay, December 3-26, 1933, among other resolutions adopted the following:

1. To express its gratification at the progress recently made in the work of revealing the civilization and culture of the ancient peoples of America, and to make public its cordial appreciation to the Governments and institutions which are so zealously continuing these activities, or which have facilitated, and are facilitating them.

2. To urge the Pan American Union to continue its yearly publication of an account of the progress made in the field of archaeology on the continent, to distribute the material in question as widely as possible, and to cooperate by every means at its disposal in the archaeological investigations now organized and to be organized in the future. (Approved December 16, 1933.)

Furthermore, resolutions regarding the protection of archaeological and historical monuments were adopted. These last resolutions we hope will tend to create uniform archaeological laws throughout the Americas so that national monuments, both pre- and post-Columbian, can be thoroughly protected and restrictions placed on unscrupulous adventure-seekers, at the same time opening possibilities for research work by recognized scientific institutions.

Since the last report was published (April 1931) the investigations in Middle American archaeology have been gathering momentum; and though these past three years have been unusually lean financially, the discoveries have been encouragingly important and rich.

Not only have governments, institutions and individuals sponsored and conducted investigations, but many of the new finds have been described in publications and are now to be seen in museums. The material is therefore available to students.

Some of the finds of the last three years have been so fascinating and a few of them so spectacular that even the daily press has awakened to the fact that American archaeology deserves a place in public interest. It is therefore to be hoped that educators will be able to

¹ Section I, on South America, written by S. K. Lothrop, Ph.D., was published in the November issue of the BULLETIN.

see that the aboriginal peoples of the New World had civilizations comparable to those of the Old World both in glory and cultural importance, and that they not only will begin teaching this subject in the schools, but also will become aware of the value of teaching anthropology in general. It is also to be hoped that those who find interest and pleasure in supporting archaeological studies may consider the American field of investigation as attractive as Egypt, Palestine, and the Far East.

Closer cooperation and good will are growing between those who make archaeological investigations, and Governments are, through new laws, safeguarding their national treasures from ruthless hunters of curios and at the same time facilitating the work of accredited institutions and universities.

As the last three years have been full of action, it will not be possible to describe all that has been done; furthermore, as this report is assembled with a desire to interest all those who are fascinated by the mystery and adventure of archaeology, we shall touch only the high spots.

Now, there are different kinds of high spots. Of most immediate appeal are the discoveries that contain gold and jewels. From infancy we have been taught that gold and jewels represent the highest accomplishment and are a final aim.

There have been a few finds of this type, but the man who is engaged in the task of rebuilding the sequence of ancient history—the archaeologist—is more thrilled by a refuse heap, a city dump. That is where the broken utensils, the discarded furniture, are piled, and that is where he can study changes in style, in ideas, in cultural development.

To dig in Middletown's city dump is not so spectacular as to excavate the palace of a nobleman or a millionaire. But the dump tells more about the life of the people, and after all it is the life of the people of ancient times with which the archaeologist is concerned. The stratified remains in an ancient city dump tell a most fascinating story of human struggle and development.

Let us now see what has been done during the last three years in the Middle American countries:

MEXICO is the largest of these nations, and within its present boundaries were assembled innumerable peoples, who shifted about, developed, and declined through the centuries. It is also the richest in ancient remains and has a high appreciation of their cultural value. Their number can be counted in the thousands, and the student knows that many sections of this country are still archaeologically unexplored.

The Department of Public Education has a very active Bureau of Pre-Hispanic Monuments under the efficient leadership of Señor

José Reygadas Vertiz, who cooperates closely with Dr. Alfonso Caso, Director of the National Museum and one of the most able and experienced leaders this honorable institution has ever had. Having before them a stupendous problem that cannot be solved in a short time, they have selected some strategic locations for intensive work.

In the Federal District a wide scheme of road and city planning is being put into effect. In order to isolate the Cathedral of Mexico City, and permit it to be better seen, several buildings that stood on the site of the Great Temple of the Aztec were razed and the Government archaeologists made trenches, searching for ancient remains. At the corner of Guatemala and Seminario Streets was found a



Courtesy of Bureau of Pre Hispanic Monuments, Mexico.

FIGURE 1.—CORNER OF AZTEC PYRAMID, MEXICO CITY.

Recent excavations in the vicinity of the cathedral in the heart of Mexico City brought to light the corner of an Aztec pyramid.

stairway bounded by a wide balustrade decorated with a molding of inclined planes, as shown in figure 1. A study of the pottery found in this place indicated that it had been inhabited solely by the Aztec.

The splendid excavations at *Tenayuca* conducted by Señor José Reygadas V. have been finished, and the tunnels penetrating the pyramid have been reinforced with concrete and pillars.

At *Calixtlahuaca*, near the city of Toluca, the State archaeologist, Señor Payón, has conducted some highly important investigations; among the many interesting features a circular temple should be mentioned briefly. As yet this is the only circular temple found in central Mexico; possibly it was built for rites connected with Quetzalcoatl (fig. 2).

The ruins of *Teotihuacán* are so extensive that it will be many years before they have been excavated finally. During the last several seasons much work has been carried on in the so-called "Road of the Dead." Excavations have been conducted which have revealed a whole row of foundations of old temples, and through this work the layout of the road has been further determined.

Dr. George Vaillant, of the American Museum of Natural History in New York, has been working at *Teotihuacán* and also in the vicinity of these ruins. He and Mrs. Vaillant made two field trips to the Valley of Mexico. In the spring of 1932 excavations were carried out at *El*



Courtesy of Señor Payón.

FIGURE 2.—CIRCULAR TEMPLE AT CALIXTLAHUACA, NEAR TOLUCA.

To date this is the only circular temple found in central Mexico.

Arbolillo in the Guadalupe region of the valley, to corroborate the results obtained at *Zacatenco* in 1929-30. The results were successful in that the early *Zacatenco* proved to be of considerable age, to judge from the 28 feet of accumulation. Furthermore, some sixty burials of early and middle *Zacatenco* dates provided much information on the mortuary customs and physical types of the people of that period. Studies were also made on the geological deposits overlying such cultural remains, which indicated no profound antiquity.

The following winter, 1932-33, Dr. and Mrs. Vaillant carried on extensive trenching operations at *Teotihuacán*. From a preliminary survey they established three ceramic periods, the two latter of which

can be correlated with the buildings. Also, a new culture, Mazapán (later than that of Teotihuacán), was defined. This is of considerable interest in indicating the date at which plumbate pottery entered the Valley of Mexico, no single sherd having been found in purely Teotihuacán deposits.

During the same season Mrs. Vaillant made excavations in the barrio of Gualupita, in *Cuernaraca*, Morelos. Here she made interesting discoveries in establishing three periods. One was contemporaneous with but distinct from early and middle Zacatenco. A second could be correlated with Ticomán and Cuicuilco, and suggested contemporaneousness with the earlier phases of Teotihuacán. The third and latest layer produced material probably associable with the Tlahuicán.

The chronological results drawn from the stratigraphical research of the Bureau of Pre-Hispanic Monuments of the Mexican Government and the American Museum of Natural History probably are the most complete for any single region in Latin America.

The classification of pottery on page 866 gives an example of what can be read from refuse heaps. By careful attention to detail it is possible to see how different types and styles overlap and intermingle, and thus one is able to build up a chronology of development.

In 1932 Dr. S. Linné, of the Ethnographical Department of the State Museum, Stockholm, conducted an archaeological expedition to Mexico, in part financed by certain Swedish industrial concerns operating in that country. Active field work was undertaken by Dr. Linné, assisted by his wife, only at *Teotihuacán*.

The most important result was the discovery and clearing of a ruin hidden below a maize field about 2,000 feet east of the Pyramid of the Sun. Originally this building complex, which measured 98 by 131 feet, included more than 40 rooms grouped around a rectangular courtyard bordered by platforms. Both in building technique and architectural style this establishment agrees, in spite of its modest dimensions, *inter alia* with La Ciudadela, and with remains of dwelling-house character discovered at that place, and also with the excavated architectural works adjoining the south section of the "Road of the Dead."

Six consecutive building periods, or building-out stages, were established. Below the floors of the house ruin were found seven graves containing, among other things, a considerable quantity of ceramics of the classical Teotihuacán type, as well as fragments of an alien character, possibly Maya. A fairly numerous type of pottery, which in all respects differs from the Teotihuacán ceramics, must have been imported, possibly from the Chalchicomula district west of Mount Orizaba.

Between the ground level and the floors of the ruin were discovered numerous graves and artifacts coming from a later people who had made their habitations on the low mound that had formed on the site of the ancient establishment from crumbled walls, sand, and soil. This culture, the Mazapán culture, occupies a date between the Aztec and the Teotihuacán cultures. The greater part of the ceramics of this period are of an exceptionally distinct type, and consist of bowls decorated with ornaments in red paint made up of groups of wavy and straight lines. In association with the Mazapan bowls was recovered a clay figure, 3.67 feet high, representing the god Xipe Totec (fig. 3). This figure is interesting because it holds in one of its hands a cup of a style typical of Oaxaca. According to Sahagún, Xipe was originally a Zapotec deity.

The results of the above researches have just been published.

In the Pyramid of *Cholula*, State of Puebla, the exploration is continued by means of tunnels, as it is impossible to do otherwise on account of the buildings erected on top of it. Unlike the Pyramid of Teotihuacán, it is made up of a great number of superimposed structures. With the information collected, Señor Cuevas, the archaeologist directing the work, has made a model on which can be discerned



Courtesy of Dr. Sigvald Linné.

FIGURE 3.—THE GOD XIPE TOTEC.

This clay figure was found at Xololpán, Mexico, by an expedition of the National Museum of Sweden, headed by Dr. Sigvald Linné.

very clearly the course of construction of the building in the lower part of the northern side and on the northeast corner. Señor Eduardo Noguera, another archaeologist, has made numerous excavations, looking for traces of pottery, and has found in the upper layers the remains of the well-known polychrome Cholula ware. Farther down, between 10 and 33 feet deep, he found fragments of the Toltec or Teotihuacán type, and finally, inside the pyramid, and at a great depth, the existence of archaic pottery could be proved (figs. 4 and 5).

The results of this work, as well as the study related to them, will be published next year.

Close to the city of Puebla, on the banks of the *Atoyac River*, a large stone statue was found, carved from rocks such as are found in the bed of the river. It is coarsely sculptured, and the face is much disintegrated.

The reconstruction work of the Pyramid of *Tajín* has been begun under the direction of Señor Agustín García Vega, and Señor Enrique Juan Palacios is studying the reliefs and objects that come out of the excavations.

In October 1930 the Bureau of Monuments of the Department of Public Education, with the collaboration of the Pan American Institute of Geography and History, the University of Mexico, and several Mexicans and foreigners, decided upon explorations in the archaeological zone of *Monte Albán*, Oaxaca (fig. 6), the work being under the direction of Dr. Alfonso Caso, the present director of the National Museum.

The first period of the exploration of Monte Albán began in October 1931 and ended in February of the following year. The exploration consisted of excavations and reconstructions made on the northern platform and in the tombs (vaults).

The main square of Monte Albán is a great rectangle 984 feet long by 656 feet wide, surrounded on all sides by platforms, on which pyramids rise. In the middle of this square are three mounds, and in one of these is found a vault (tomb), which was explored long ago; what it contained is unknown. Since the eighteenth century we have known of the pillage of the buildings of Monte Albán, but only since the Federal Government took charge of this zone have these plunderings been stopped.

The northern platform is a terrace of irregular form, bounding the great square of Monte Albán on the northern side. Upon this terrace rise several mounds of different heights; between the two designated with the letters *A* and *B* there is a great sunken-square enclosure, to which one descends by steps at the sides. In the middle of this enclosure is a small mound, almost destroyed by vandalistic excavations, in which Batres found the stela which Dr. Caso designated Number 10. The terrace that forms the northern platform, as well as the mounds on top of it, was totally covered with grass and bushes, so that the first work done necessarily consisted in clearing the vegetation, in order to determine the general lines of the platform and the shape of the monuments.

In about the middle of the northern platform appeared the last steps of a great stairway flanked by two walls.

The exploration was begun by clearing the steps of this great stairway, but on reaching the corner where it joins the balustrade there were found the remains of another stairway, of more recent

FIGURE 4.—A TUNNEL INTO THE CHOLULA PYRAMID.

Since the great Cholula pyramid is surmounted by a church, exploration of the pyramid has had to be made by means of tunnels. The adobe side walls of this tunnel cover the steps of a much older temple stairway.



FIGURE 5.—MODEL OF CONSTRUCTION UNDERLYING THE PYRAMID OF CHOLULA.

This plaster model of stairs, terraces, and temples within the great pyramid is based on a survey of the tunnels driven into the pyramid by archaeologists of the Mexican Government during the last three seasons' work.

Courtesy of Señores Cuevas and Noguera.



Courtesy of Señores Cuevas and Noguera.



Courtesy of Dr. Alfonso Caso.

FIGURE 6.—MONTE ALBÁN, OAXACA, MEXICO.

This view of the Great Temple Square shows a part of the restoration work being done under the direction of Dr. Alfonso Caso.

date, which appeared to have been placed on top of the other. Between the two stairways there was a thick coat of débris made up of earth and stones, some of them with carved surfaces; in order to find out whether between these two stairways there was another, it was decided to make a boring that would cut the stairway transversally through its entire height. As was expected, the remains of another stairway were found between the first two.

Nine tombs were explored in the first season. Tomb 1, located to the south of the great square, had been ransacked, and the work consisted only in the clearing of the débris and the earth that covered it. Tomb 2, in which some skeletons and clay vessels were encountered, was found to the west of the great square, untouched.

The other seven tombs explored during the first season were all located in the cemetery to the north of the northern platform.

Without doubt the outstanding discovery of the first season of the exploration was Tomb 7, which to the present time is the richest of all discoveries made on the American continents. (See BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, Vol. 66, June 1932.)

This tomb is important not only because of the objects made of precious materials found in it, but because it shows the enormous cultural advancement that the aboriginal races had reached before the Conquest, and is a proof of the assertion made by the first Europeans who came into contact with the Indians, that the technical ability and the mastery of the aboriginal jewelers could not be surpassed in Europe.

Materials known to have been used by the Indians, but examples of which did not exist or were very scarce, were found in abundance among the jewels discovered in Tomb 7. These consisted of pearls, amber, jet, silver, rock crystal, jade, turquoise, coral, and gold.

But the discovery of Tomb 7 was important not only from the esthetic or technical point of view, but because numerous objects have carvings of gods, animals, and symbols. The wonderful collection of more than 30 carved tigerbones has enriched considerably

FIGURE 7. — ENTRANCE
TO TOMB 31, MONTE
ALBÁN.

The Zapotec urns are shown
as they were found in the
tomb.



Courtesy of Dr. Alfonso Caso.

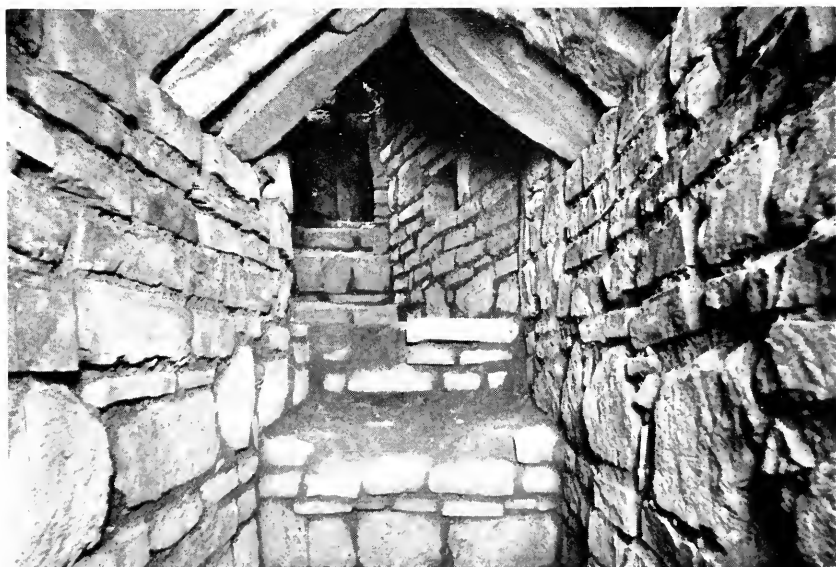
our knowledge about the writings and symbolism of the ancient peoples of Oaxaca. To increase the interest of the discovery, it has been demonstrated that Tomb 7 of Monte Albán was used twice: the first time by its builders, the Zapotec, who placed in it a chief or other important person of their nation, and the second time by the Mixtec, who buried the skeletons of nine priests, dressed in their jewels, and probably their costumes, although of the latter not the least trace remained.



Courtesy of Dr. Alfonso Caso.

FIGURE 8. — INTERIOR
OF TOMB 40, MONTE
ALBÁN.

Clay idols and pottery were
found in quantity



Courtesy of Dr. Alfonso Caso

FIGURE 9. — ENTRANCE
CORRIDOR TO TOMB
4, MONTE ALBÁN.

This intrusion of Mixtec burials in a city that, because of all the other finds, is shown to be exclusively Zapotec, is a very important problem that remains to be solved.

In the second season Tombs 10 to 35 were explored (figs. 7-10). After finishing the explorations, Señor Valenzuela explored Tombs 36, 37, 38, and 39, the last three already pilfered, although 38 contained some vessels overlooked by the ransackers, among them a clay vessel with four legs, a very uncommon specimen in the pottery of Mexico. Tomb 39 contained some censers of clay and a little jade head. Tomb 10 was very important because of the Zapotec hieroglyphs, which were painted on the lintel in red and green and which are very similar in style to the hieroglyphs carved on the stelae of Monte Albán. This was the first example of painted Zapotec hieroglyphs. Tomb 33 is one of the most interesting on account of the pottery encountered, and because it is one of the oldest. It was found nearly 15 feet underground, a depth uncommon in Monte Albán. It contained the skeleton of a girl nine years old, together with precious pieces of pottery that look like toys, and that show more freedom in execution than the hieratic figures of the classical Zapotec period. Similar to this tomb is 43, which was explored in the third season, and which undoubtedly belongs to the same epoch. It is very probable that Tombs 33 and 43 belong to the civilization that constructed Mound L, or that of "The Dancers."

In the third season a ball court was added to the previous explorations. It is situated on the northwest corner of the great square. It covers an area 131 feet square, enclosed by four walls; those on the east and west sides are inclined walls, composed of small steps covered with a coat of stucco. In the middle of the ball court was found a round stone in the shape of an altar, but the stone rings, which are so characteristic of this type of construction of the last epoch of the Toltec culture, were not among the debris. Because of the lack of rings, and because of its having an altar in the center, the ball court of Monte Albán seems to be connected with the cities of the Maya Old Empire, especially those studied by Blom in the Chiapas section.



Courtesy of Dr. Alfonso Caso.

FIGURE 10.—SMALL CLAY FIGURINE OF A CHILD FOUND AT MONTE ALBÁN.

This figurine accompanied a child's burial in Tomb 33.

The work on the monuments and the tombs was in charge of Señores Martín Bazán and Juan Valenzuela, archaeologists, assisted by several students of architecture. The drawings were made by Señor Agustín Villagra, and topographical plans of Monte Albán by Señores Horacio Herrera and Agustín García Vega. The study of the anthropological material was in charge of Dr. D. F. Rubín de la Borbolla, assisted by Señor Javier Romero.



Courtesy of Señor Eduardo Martínez C.

FIGURE 11.—TWO FLINT BLADES AND A TURQUOISE AND JADE MOSAIC SHIELD.

These were found by Señor Eduardo Martínez C., chief archaeologist of Yucatan, in a tomb excavated in the Castillo of Chichén Itzá.

The preliminary examination of all the materials collected during the exploration seasons permits the establishment, in a provisional form, of three great cultural periods, but their characteristics, and contacts with or influence by other civilizations, as well as the possible duration of these periods, will be better known when a close study of all the pottery materials gathered is finished.

In *Palenque* the archaeologists of the Mexican Government have initiated a program of reinforcement of many of the roof combs² which adorn the temples and have also begun to make a map of the entire group of ruins. This work is conducted by Señor Miguel Ángel Fernández.

At *Chichén Itzá* the most striking find has been the interior temple of the Castillo. This remarkable feature was reported by the chief archaeologist of Yucatan, Señor Eduardo Martínez Cantón. It has been well known that the Maya from time to time would cover their buildings and erect new structures on the mound thus created. Señor Martínez drove tunnels into various levels of the Pyramid of the Castillo and encountered the shell of another pyramid

² A structural feature added to the roofs of some Maya buildings, giving greater height to the buildings and supplying additional space for decoration. These roof structures at Palenque, the finest found in the Maya area, were made of stone set up like lattice work and at one time were plastered over with stucco ornament.



Courtesy of Señor Eduardo Martínez C.

FIGURE 12.—THE TEMPLE OF THE TIGERS AND SHIELDS AT CHICHÉN ITZÁ.

The restoration was made by Señores Eduardo Martínez C. and P. Erosa.

and, finally, an entire temple resting intact inside the present shell and forming a basis for the present temple. Great difficulty is involved in this tunneling because of the danger that heavy material may collapse and settle into excavations.

During the excavations of the Castillo a grave was found which contained several jade objects and also two splendid large flint blades, on the top of which lay a wooden shield covered with exquisite turquoise and jade mosaic (fig. 11). The shield was extracted carefully and is now being reconstructed.

While this work has been carried on, another group of workers under Señor Martínez's supervision has restored the Temple of the Tigers of the Ball Court and now is working on the north and south temples of that splendid structure (fig. 12). Several carvings representing whole scenes have been found, and drawings of these are being made by Señor Miguel Ángel Fernández.

The Carnegie Institution of Washington has continued to work at Chichén Itzá. The restoration of the so-called observatory, "El Caracol" (fig. 13), has been terminated by Mr. Karl Ruppert. The architect, Mr. J. S. Bolles, has finished his intensely interesting study of the Nunnery group (fig. 14), showing the gradual development of this building and its varied periods of architecture.

At the Mercado (fig. 15), which lies along one side of the Court of the Thousand Columns, work has progressed rapidly and one is able

to get an idea of the extremely interesting layout of this group of buildings. Among the outstanding finds should be mentioned an altar, on the sides of which are figures carved in low relief and vividly ornamented in colors. The motif of this carving is a procession of captives.

Several other programs are being carried out from the Carnegie headquarters at Chichén. Among these should be mentioned briefly the ceramic research in ruined cities of Yucatan which is being conducted by Mr. Harry H. Pollock and Mr. Henry B. Roberts. Trenches for pottery stratification have been dug in a series of cities, and the resulting collections are now being classified. Search is being made for refuse heaps in the leading cities, and before long the investigators should have an important index to the chronology of Maya pottery art as closely associated with the buildings. This is not what one would call a spectacular type of excavation, but it is of the greatest importance.

The ruins of *Yaxuná* have been surveyed by Mr. John P. O'Neill, and preparations have been made for possible future excavations.

In *Campeche* Mr. C. L. Lundell and Mr. Karl Ruppert have made trips of reconnaissance to a series of ruined cities that had not previously been reported by archaeologists. Since large groups of monuments were encountered and since many of these carry legible dates in Maya annotation, these investigations are adding material from a section lying between the northern Yucatan cities and the great cities of Petén, Guatemala. The Campeche survey is thereby linking the two areas and is building a complete picture of Maya archaeological and petrographic material.

Not the least interesting piece of work conducted by the Carnegie Institution is the survey of the great paved highway which runs between Yaxuná, close to Chichén Itzá, and the ruins of Cobá. Señor Alfonso Villa was in charge of this work; his report gives a fascinating picture of one of the major highways of pre-European America.

In BRITISH HONDURAS a certain amount of investigation has been undertaken by the British Museum. Captain T. A. Joyce took to London a fine series of original monuments from the ruins of Lu-baantún. These have now been erected in the front portico of the British Museum, and with other material brought back by earlier expeditions, the British Museum today has one of the finest collections of Maya sculpture in the world.

Mr. J. Eric Thompson, of the Field Museum in Chicago, has contributed valuable data through his expeditions in British Honduras.

By excavations at San José in the northern part of the colony, Mr. Thompson uncovered some lesser buildings which produced very interesting pottery. This enabled him to establish a chronology which links with the work done by Vaillant, Roberts, and Pollock.



Courtesy of the Carnegie Institution.

FIGURE 13.—EL CARACOL, CHICHÉN ITZÁ, YUCATÁN.

The restoration of this structure was completed by Mr. Karl Ruppert of the Carnegie Institution, Washington.



Courtesy of the Carnegie Institution.

FIGURE 14.—THE NUNNERY, CHICHÉN ITZÁ.

Mr. J. S. Bolles of the Carnegie Institution has been studying this building from an architectural point of view.

The Government of GUATEMALA should be congratulated on the organization of its National Museum, which is installed in Aurora Park and is now open to the public. Many private collections have been brought together and, furthermore, one sees several magnificent original stelae from *Piedras Negras* (fig. 16). These monuments were brought out with great effort and expense by the Eldridge R. Johnson Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania Museum.

A lengthy description of the fine work done by the University of Pennsylvania and of the splendid discoveries which this expedition made can be found in the February 1934 number of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union.

According to agreement with the Government of Guatemala, half of the monuments which were brought out from Piedras Negras have been deposited as a loan in the University of Pennsylvania Museum and the other half shipped to Guatemala City. This work was conducted with the greatest care by Dr. J. Alden Mason and Mr. Linton Satterthwaite.

At the same time that the ruins of Piedras Negras were mapped, the Pennsylvania men excavated several temples and located some interesting ball courts.

The Carnegie Institution of Washington maintains offices in Guatemala City, and with this place as headquarters expeditions have done considerable work, both in the highlands of Guatemala and in Petén. Dr. S. K. Lothrop made several excavations around *Lake Atitlán* on behalf of the institution, and was able to establish a series of pottery types.

In 1931 Dr. S. G. Morley, of the Carnegie Institution, conducted an expedition to the ruins of *Yaxchilán*, where he succeeded in uncovering a large number of monuments which had not hitherto been recorded. Photographs and drawings were made of all inscriptions and preparations are being made to publish this material.

At the permanent Carnegie camp at *Uaxactun*, Messrs. Ledyard Smith and Robert Smith have been continuing the survey of these important ruins. Only two of the most striking finds can be treated here. The first was a cache of some extraordinarily beautiful painted pottery, located in the interior of one of the principal pyramids. These splendid pieces were immediately published in colors by the institution. The other work of principal importance is the excavation of a large structure of the palace type, called for the purpose of identification A-V, resting on a platform 280 feet long and 240 feet wide. The building consists in the main of four courts, all but one of which are surrounded by rooms whose vaulted roofs have in most instances fallen in. The east court has rooms only on three sides, the fourth side consisting of a long, low platform from whose top an unusually broad stairway leads down to the east plaza. The courts lie at different levels and access from one to another is gained by stairways.

The excavations yielded a great number of artifacts, sherds, and figurines which throw much light upon the function of the palace, and upon the appearance and dress of its inhabitants. Most of the material so far found comes from above the floors of the courts and rooms, but whenever these floors have been penetrated different types and shapes have occurred. Animal and human bones were found in abundance above the floors, usually in sheltered corners. The human bones, as well as those of animals, show signs of cutting. Many of the human long bones had their extremities removed, and the parts of the shaft still connected to the extremities are cut longitudinally. Such specimens were confined to the latest deposits; hence, if they



Courtesy of the Carnegie Institution.

FIGURE 15.—COURTYARD OF THE MERCADO AT CHICHÉN ITZÁ.

indicate cannibalism, it seems to have been practiced only after the general break-up of the Old Empire.

Two new stelae were discovered in the palace, one carved and one plain. The latter was standing in position, but had been covered by later construction; the former lay in the rubble under the floor of one of the latest rooms. This stela, which is only a fragment, bears the date 9.5.0.0.0. (11 Aha 18 Tzec, or 2 July 534 A.D. by the Thompson-Teeple correlation). Seven burials were found, some under the floors of the courts, some in the masonry of benches in rooms, others above floor level with no protection except a few rough stones placed around them. Both sexes and all ages were represented. In every instance the skeleton was flexed. There were very few mortuary offerings. Most of the bones were in a good state of preservation.

One of the most interesting finds in A-V was a fresco which once covered the whole back wall of a room. It shows traces of red and orange, but for the most part is in black lines. Unfortunately, more than half of it had been destroyed by roots and the fall of stones, but from what remains it is clear that a scene of action was depicted. Figures in full costume carrying spears and standards, and others dressed only in loincloths, face each other from either end. In the lower right-hand corner is a double-headed serpent with fish swimming into its gaping mouths; and in the corresponding position at the opposite end is a temple in outline. The latter is of exceptional



Courtesy of Dr. J. Alden Mason and Linton Satterthwaite.

FIGURE 16.—A TEMPLE AT PIEDRAS NEGRAS, GUATEMALA.

Excavations were carried on here by Dr. J. Alden Mason and Mr. Linton Satterthwaite of the Eldridge R. Johnson Expedition of the University of Pennsylvania Museum.

interest, for it shows a complete roof comb. This is our only evidence as to the nature of this crowning feature of the Uaxactun temples.

Another project conducted by the Carnegie Institution is the reerection of the magnificent monuments at *Quiriguá*. Mr. Earl Morris was in charge of this work, which has a popular interest inasmuch as the ruins of Quiriguá lie very near the railroad to Guatemala City and therefore are becoming more and more widely known as tourists are discovering the beauty and fascination of Guatemala.

Recently the Republic of HONDURAS has given over a building to a National Museum. This is rapidly growing, and with it is growing the national interest in the antiquities of the country. A law has been passed for the protection of archaeological monuments and

cities, and the first National Museum expedition went out in 1933 under the leadership of Capt. R. Stuart Murray. Further expeditions are being planned.

The late Mrs. Dorothy Popenoe conducted some interesting trenching and excavations in the *Uloa Valley* and made a careful study of the pottery and stone artifacts of that region. The results of her work will shortly appear in the new quarterly *Maya Research*.

Mrs. Doris Zemurray Stone investigated several shell mounds along the coast of Honduras on behalf of the Department of Middle American Research of the Tulane University.

Of great interest were the finds made by Mr. Duncan Strong, of the Smithsonian Institution, in the *Bay Islands* of Honduras. Particularly fascinating was his discovery of clay vases which had exactly the same design as the famous marble vase from the Uloa Valley.

Due to the scarcity of funds, neither the Government of EL SALVADOR nor the National University in the capital has conducted archaeological excavations during the last few years. At the National Museum there is an excellent collection of objects found in that country.

As in previous years, Señor Antonio E. Sol has continued his interest in the ancient history of his country and reports upon some petroglyphs which he has found in the vicinity of Santa Tecla. The excavations and restorations which he formerly conducted have had to be suspended for the time being, owing to shortness of funds.

Dr. Manuel Valerio, director of the National Museum at San José, COSTA RICA, announces that the Government of Costa Rica has not conducted any excavations or investigations during the last few years. But several individuals are extremely interested in archaeology, and personally have undertaken investigations. Among these first of all should be mentioned Doña María Fernández de Tinoco, who has written several articles on the archaeology of Costa Rica and who, during her visits to Europe, lectured on the subject. Señora de Tinoco conducted her investigations on a plantation formerly called Apaikan and now called Monserrat, at present owned by Jorge A. Lines. She began excavations in the mounds of this property and found great quantities of pottery (fig. 17) as well as a few beads of jadeite. Later, when Señor Lines acquired the plantation, he continued the investigations, prepared careful plans and took many photographs. He has published an article on one of his findings in *La Tribuna* (Oct. 12, 1933), and now is preparing a book entitled *Huacas Hueteres de Toyopán*, wherein he will give a detailed description of his findings.

In the part of the capital of *San José* called Cinco Esquinas, an Indian cemetery has been located. This was excavated by Señor Solón Corrales, who found that the burials were placed directly in the ground, without any grave rooms made of stone, and surrounded by pieces of pottery.

The National Museum is taking an active part in aiding those individuals who are interested in excavations in all parts of the country. The museum issues permits and insists upon reports on the progress of the excavations. According to law, all pieces must be delivered to the museum and if pieces of particular interest are found, these are purchased. Duplicate pieces or common pieces are returned to the excavators, who are permitted to dispose of them.

The museum shows considerable activity, though it is hampered by very restricted funds. Among its various undertakings is an archaeological map of Costa Rica, which is being built up through the collaboration of the school teachers throughout the country. Interest in the ancient history of the country is growing rapidly under the enthusiastic leadership of Dr. Valerio, the director of the museum, who should be congratulated on his work.

Finally, there should be mentioned the H. J. Boekelman expedition along the coast of the CARIBBEAN, investigating shell mounds. In conjunction with the American Museum of Natural History of New York, Mr. Boekelman made studies not only of pure conchology but also of the importance of shell as ornamental and trade objects.



Courtesy of Jorge A. Lines.

FIGURE 17.—EXAMPLES OF COSTA RICAN POTTERY RECENTLY EXCAVATED BY JORGE A. LINES.

This summarizes very briefly the archaeological activities in Mexico and the Central American Republics during the last three-year period. Those who are interested in further details can acquire the publications which have been issued by most of the institutions engaged in this work.

An important instrument in research is the newly founded quarterly *Maya Research*, which is being published by the Alma Egan Hyatt Foundation in New York. In this quarterly will be found articles on the archaeology and ethnology of the Maya and also a detailed bibliography, giving the titles of all recent publications.

CHILE'S CAVALRY SCHOOL

By A. K. C. PALMER

Director, Chile-American Association

CONVINCED of the need of developing the cavalry branch of the Chilean Army, the General Staff established a Cavalry School on November 18, 1903, having for its principal object the training of instructors who would be assigned to the mounted forces of the Republic. At the same time there was established a school of farriers to which officers and privates were sent annually.

During the first period of its existence, the Cavalry School had a director, assistant director and aide, and four instructors. Training was given to officers of the rank of lieutenant and lower grades, who were to take charge of the mounted forces. The courses of study were about as follows: Riding from 7 a. m. to 11 a. m.; in the afternoon various branches of work such as military tactics, communications, topography, farriery, veterinary science, and physical training.

The work of the school quickly produced results, and in a few years a number of officers had so distinguished themselves that it was evident that they would be invaluable as instructors. The military authorities decided to send these men abroad to perfect their experience, and from 1907 to 1913 ten officers of the school took courses in various institutions, notably Hanover, Saumur, Tor di Quinto and Pignerol.

When these officers returned they brought about a radical change in the organization of Chilean cavalry, and the rule was established that to obtain the rank of captain it was necessary to complete the course for lieutenants in the Cavalry School. This involved a year of study and was obligatory for all lieutenants of cavalry; officers from the artillery also attended. Furthermore, there was created the title of "riding master", which was conferred on a few officers who had shown exceptional ability as horsemen and instructors. During the course of training, officers were provided with mounts of varying degrees of experience, and in this way the student became acquainted with the evolution through which horses had to pass before becoming adapted to the service.

The experience of the World War brought about a notable transformation in the Cavalry School. It lost the character of an organization devoted to instruction in riding and became an institution of

applied science in cavalry work which included in its curriculum military history, tactics, ballistics, topography, communications, sapping, languages, higher mathematics, farriery, veterinary science, drilling of troops, etc. In this way the evolution has proceeded until today there is the following structure:

1. *School management.*—This consists of a director (colonel, or lieutenant colonel and his aide); assistant director (lieutenant colonel and his aide); personnel composed of officers and privates who form the staff.



THE CHILEAN CAVALRY TEAM IN THE UNITED STATES.

The first Chilean team to participate in the National Horse Show at New York was received in Washington by the Secretary of State, Hon. Cordell Hull. In the group, from left to right, appear: (front row) Col. A. K. C. Palmer, Director of the Chile-American Association, Lieutenants Fernández, Izurieta, and Ortiz, Captain Eduardo Yáñez, His Excellency Señor Don Manuel Trucco, Ambassador of Chile, and the Hon. Cordell Hull. In the rear are Señor Don Fernando Illanes Benítez and Señor Don Mario Rodríguez, second secretaries of the Chilean Embassy in Washington.

2. *Cavalry.*—There are two squadrons of lancers, a machine-gun and mounted-cannon squadron commanded by a major and his aide, assisted by three captains. Each squadron has three sections commanded by a lieutenant or second lieutenant.

3. *Courses of study and riding.*—This work is directed by a major and his aide, who have under them four captains or lieutenants.

4. *Farriery.*—This is under the control of a captain.

Besides the technical work, instruction under proper conditions is given in work with obstacles, difficult terrain, rivers, control of the mount and other details.

Participation in riding and equestrian contests is obligatory for the officers of the school, and in order to prepare for these affairs, there is a division in charge of specially trained instructors. From the date of the establishment of the Cavalry School, the following international events have had entries from the Chilean organization:

Argentine Centenary, 1910; Olympic Games, Stockholm, 1912; Olympic Hall, London, 1912; Brazilian Centenary, 1922; international contests in Biarritz, Nice, Lisbon, Aachen, London and Stresa, from the years 1927 to 1931.

In every case the Chilean contestants have returned to their home country with invaluable experience obtained from their contacts and efforts in foreign countries.

This is the first time that a Chilean team has participated in the New York Horse Show.



Photograph from Wide World.

CHILEAN CAVALRY OFFICERS.

Captain Eduardo Yáñez and Lieutenant Enrique Ortiz take a hurdle with ease. In the jumping event at the New York Horse Show for which a cup was given by President Alessandri of Chile, the Chilean team won second honors.

INTER-AMERICAN COMMERCIAL ARBITRATION COMMISSION

A NEW commission has been organized to undertake the development of a system of commercial arbitration between the American Republics. Acting in accordance with a resolution of the Seventh International Conference of American States, the Governing Board of the Union designated the American Arbitration Association, Inc., and the Council on Inter-American Relations, Inc., as a joint agency for the development of a system of commercial arbitration. The new body has been organized under the name of Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission, with headquarters at the Latin-American Center, 67 Broad Street, New York City. Chairmanship of the commission has been accepted by Mr. Spruille Braden, a delegate of the United States to the Seventh International Conference. The commission, when completed, will have 50 to 60 members, including representatives of each of the American Republics. The following are among those who have accepted membership: J. Arturo Arguedas, Carlos C. Arosemena, José Aviles, Renato de Azevedo, Carlos E. Bermeo, Spruille Braden, Herman G. Brock, G. H. Bucher, James S. Carson, Samuel Claro, Phanor J. Eder, J. M. Fernández, Enrique Gil, Carlos Gumucio, Francisco P. de Hoyos, Frances Kellor, Severo Mallet-Prevost, John L. Merrill, Rafael Montoya, W. T. Moran, José Nabuco, Rodolfo Ogarrio, Palmer E. Pierce, Miguel López Pumarejo, Antonio Valladares, W. F. B. Van Dyck, Vicente Vita, Jorge E. Zalles, Máximo H. Zepeda. Mr. Braden has been elected chairman.

The ultimate objective of the commission is the establishment, in each American Republic, of inter-American tribunals of arbitration, operating in accordance with approved standards, wherein business men of the various American Republics will be assured of impartial arbitrators and of a standard procedure for the speedy and economical settlement of controversies. Committees will be organized in each Republic as soon as possible. They will be empowered to promote, either in organizations already in existence, or independently, inter-American commercial arbitration tribunals which will operate under the standard rules of the commission. Permanent panels of arbitrators will be appointed in each country, representative of the outstanding industrial and commercial groups, and including nationals of the different American Republics. The benefit of this system of local committees familiar with the laws and trade practices in the country

in which they operate, working in conjunction with the central coordinating commission, is apparent.

The plan for the establishment of local committees in American Republics is as follows:

I. ORGANIZATION

The commission may establish in each Republic a committee to be known as the Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Committee of -----
----- (name of Republic).

These committees may be established through the appointment by the commission of a chairman, with authority to make nominations for members of the committee, for approval by the commission. The term of appointment shall be at the pleasure of the commission.

Members of the commission resident in the Republic shall be members of the committee and may be officers thereof.

The committee, thus appointed, shall be responsible to the commission.

The personnel of each committee shall, insofar as possible, be selected to represent nationals of the different American Republics, resident in that Republic.

The number of members may be flexible, but preferably not exceeding 15. Subcommittees may be created by the committee for the development of arbitration in a particular trade or industry, as between two or more of the American Republics, and for other purposes.

II.—POWERS AND DUTIES OF COMMITTEES

It shall be the responsibility of each committee:

To facilitate the adoption of the standards of procedure and practice, approved at the Seventh International Conference of American States, and to carry on educational work for their promotion and acceptance.

To endeavor to effect the enactment of amendments to existing arbitration laws in harmony with the standards approved by the Seventh International Conference of American States.

To secure the cooperation of commercial and industrial organizations and of professional bodies in the plans of the commission.

To promote the establishment, either in existing organizations or independently, of an inter-American commercial arbitration tribunal, to be governed by an arbitration committee, the names of the members thereof to be filed with the commission.

To appoint a permanent panel of arbitrators, to remove members thereof in the discretion of the committee, or to fill vacancies thereon. Insofar as possible, these panels shall include nationals of the different American Republics, resident in that Republic. Such panels shall also be representative of the prevailing industrial and commercial groups and of the general public. The names of the members, so appointed, removed, or replaced, shall be filed with the commission.

To consider and report on such recommendations as may, from time to time, be sent to it by the commission and to make recommendations to the commission on such matters as the committee may deem appropriate.

To make arrangements for the conduct of arbitrations in matters specifically referred to it for such proceedings.

To call local conferences or other meetings for educational purposes.

To report to the commission from time to time on any action taken by it and upon the progress of its work, in order to enable the commission to report to the Pan American Union.

III.—ARBITRATIONS.

From time to time the commission will transmit to the committees for their consideration and action, proposed rules of procedure for the conduct of arbitrations, recommendations for the amendment of arbitration laws and suggestions for the advancement of the use of arbitration in their respective Republics.

The headquarters of the commission in New York will also act as a clearing house for the exchange of information on arbitration and for technical cooperation in the adaptation of standards of procedure.

The Inter-American Commercial Arbitration Commission is expected to fill a long-felt need in facilitating the settlement of commercial controversies which may arise between business men in the various American Republics. The arbitration of such controversies will not only expedite individual proceedings, but will also tend to build up goodwill and confidence and will be of great assistance in the preservation of friendly relations.

FELLOWSHIPS HELD BY LATIN AMERICANS IN THE UNITED STATES

By HELOISE BRAINERD

Chief, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union

AS on former occasions, the BULLETIN is glad to print a list of Latin Americans who are holding fellowships or undergraduate scholarships in the United States during the academic year 1934-35. Those of whom the Pan American Union has been able to learn are as follows, grouped by organizations or institutions making the awards:

John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation: Dr. Ramón Enrique Gaviola, of Argentina, professor of physical chemistry at the University of Buenos Aires. Dr. Gaviola, whose training as a physicist was obtained at the Universities of La Plata, Berlin, and Johns Hopkins, is pursuing studies in his field, especially in photochemistry, at the California Institute of Technology.

Dr. Atilio Macchiavello Varas, of Chile, chief of the Sanitary Inspection Service of the Northern Sanitary Zone of Chile, at Antofagasta. He is studying in the fields of preventive medicine and public health, particularly on problems of typhus in Chile, with Professor Hans Zinsser of the Harvard Medical School. Dr. Macchiavello has been chief of the Chilean Antiplague Service for the past three years.

Dr. Luis Hugo Howell Rivero, of Cuba, assistant in anthropology, University of Habana. A doctor of science of the University of Habana and author of several papers on the West Indian fishes, Dr. Howell is carrying on studies in that field, chiefly at the Museum of Comparative Zoology, Harvard University.

Professor Alfredo Barrera Vásquez, of Mexico, professor of the Maya language in the National Museum and in the Faculty of Philosophy and Letters of the National University of Mexico. Last year Professor Barrera was working, on a Guggenheim fellowship, at the University of Chicago on certain paleographic problems in post-Cortesian Maya documents, and during his second fellowship year he is at Tulane University in the Department of Middle American Research, making further studies in Maya linguistics and translating the Maya Codex known as the *Chilam Balam de Tizimín*.

Dr. Alfonso Dampf, also of Mexico, chief of the Entomological Laboratory of the Ministry of Agriculture, Mexico, D. F. A native of Esthonia, Dr. Dampf has been employed by the Mexican Government since 1923. His project is taxonomical, morphological and biological studies of the black flies, *Simuliidae*, of Central and South America, in relation to the transmission of *onchocercosis*, a disease causing blindness. It will be carried on in Washington in collaboration with entomologists of the United States Department of Agriculture and of the United States National Museum, and also in Mexico.

The Rockefeller Foundation: Dr. Romano H. de Meio, of Argentina, lecturer in biochemistry at the Institute of Physiology, School of Medicine, Rosario. Dr. de Meio, whose degree in chemistry was conferred by the University of Buenos Aires, is doing work in biochemistry at the University of Chicago.

Dr. Alfonso Jaramillo-Arango of Colombia, National Department of Public Health, Bogotá. Dr. Jaramillo-Arango is a graduate of the Medical School of the University of Antioquia. He is specializing in public health administration at the Johns Hopkins School of Hygiene, and upon his return to Colombia will direct the yaws campaign for the Department of Health.

Mr. Enrique Volio of Costa Rica, chief engineer, Sanitary Engineering Department of the National Department of Health, San José. Mr. Volio is a graduate of the Polytechnic College of Engineering at Oakland, Calif.; he is studying sanitary engineering at Harvard.

Dr. Guillermo J. Lage of Cuba, member of the Department of Investigation of the Finlay Institute, Habana. Dr. Lage, who has degrees in pharmacy and medicine from the University of Habana, is working in the field of public health administration at the Johns Hopkins School of Hygiene.

Dr. Alberto P. León of Mexico, Public Health Service, Mexico, D. F. Dr. León, a graduate of the medical school of the University of Mexico, has been engaged in typhus fever control work and will continue studying this problem at Harvard Medical School under Dr. Hans Zinsser.

American Association of University Women: Dr. Consuelo Vadillo of Mexico. The first woman graduate of the medical school of the University of the Southeast, Mérida, Yucatan, Dr. Vadillo is studying operative gynecology at the Woman's Medical College of Pennsylvania, after a period of observation at Johns Hopkins University.

General Federation of Women's Clubs: Miss Hortensia Varas of Chile. A graduate of the law school of the University of Chile with a year's experience in juvenile court work, Miss Varas was given the Federation's fellowship last year for study at the New York School of Social Work, and is holding it again this year. She is also doing some club work at the Union Settlement.

Ohio Federation of Women's Clubs: Miss Delia López Ibarburu of Uruguay. Miss López, who was educated at Crandon Institute and the government Normal Institute at Montevideo, is continuing the study of education at the Ohio State University.

A number of colleges and universities have granted to Latin American students fellowships or scholarships of varying amounts. Several of these students came under the auspices of the Institute of International Education, this fact being indicated in the list below by the word "Institute" in parentheses after the student's name.

Agnes Scott College: Miss Lillian Grimson of Argentina (Institute).

Colorado School of Mines: Mr. Guillermo V. Bilbao of Bolivia (renewal); Mr. Amado R. Jiménez of Costa Rica.

Georgetown University, in the School of Foreign Service: Mr. Mario Rodríguez, second secretary of the Chilean Embassy; Mr. Alexis Eugene Rovzar, of Mexico; Mr. Rogelio Edwin Alfaro, of Panama.

Harvard University: Mr. Risieri Frondizi of Argentina (Institute), graduate of the National Institute for Secondary Teachers, Buenos Aires, studying philosophy; Mr. Alfredo de Castro, Jr., of Cuba, graduate of the University of Habana law school, and student last year at Tulane University, continuing law studies.

Iowa State College: Mr. Eduardo Simón of Mexico (Institute).

Mac Murray College: Miss Elisa Roel García of Mexico (Institute), studying education.

Mount Holyoke College: Miss Mercedes Rabuñal of Uruguay (Institute) (renewal).

Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute: Mr. Jaime Alberto Vendrell of Argentina (Institute); Mr. Guillermo Uribe Arango of Colombia (Institute) (renewal); Mr. René Borja Steffan of Ecuador (Institute); Mr. Guillermo Arizcorreta y Terrazas of Mexico (Institute); Mr. Américo Silvera of Panama (Institute) (renewal); Mr. Albert A. Giesecke, Jr., of Peru (Institute).

St. Lawrence University: Miss Ofelia Mendoza of Honduras (Institute), studying education.

University of Southern California: Mr. Jorge E. Navarro of Ecuador, studying engineering; Mr. Humberto González, Mr. Enrique D. Padilla, and Mr. Gustavo A. Velasco of Mexico, who are specializing respectively in physical education, electrical engineering, and religion; Mr. Hernán Bedoya and Miss Consuelo Montoya, of Peru, the former specializing in architecture and the latter in Spanish.

University of Texas: Mr. Ignacio García Zavala and Mr. Ignacio Gavaldón Salamanca, of Mexico, holding E. D. Farmer International Scholarships.

Vassar College: Miss Adonina Salce Ascorra of Chile (Institute), who graduated last year from the Western College for Women.

Western College for Women: Miss Ester Araya Rojas of Chile (Institute).

In this connection mention may be made of two teachers who have been sent by the Brazilian Government for a short period of study at Teachers College, Columbia University. These are Miss Maria Junqueira Schmidt, principal of the Amaro Cavalcanti Commercial School of Rio de Janeiro, with a commission also from the Central Educational Library, and Miss Aracy Muniz Freire, who will specialize in training for deans of girls.



ECONOMIC RECOVERY IN LATIN AMERICA

By H. GERALD SMITH

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I

A STUDY of developments during the last year or more in a number of the Latin American Republics reveals that a distinct improvement has taken place in general economic and financial conditions. Particularly is this evident in such indices of activity as price movements and data on foreign trade, bank savings and deposits, bank clearings, commercial failures, and so forth. The following figures show the extent to which this improvement has occurred in various Latin American countries:

ARGENTINA

Foreign trade (in paper pesos):	Exports	Imports
First six months, 1933.....	580, 703, 300	430, 765, 600
First six months, 1934.....	717, 180, 300	505, 120, 500
Bank deposits (in thousands of paper pesos):		
June 30, 1933.....		3, 517, 800
June 30, 1934.....		3, 507, 300
Notes in circulation (in thousands of paper pesos):		
June 30, 1933.....		1, 326, 478
June 30, 1934.....		1, 203, 351
Buenos Aires bank clearings (in thousands of paper pesos):		
First six months, 1933.....		11, 775, 600
First six months, 1934.....		13, 859, 300
Commercial failures (in paper pesos):		
First six months, 1933.....		133, 739, 900
First six months, 1934.....		69, 754, 900
Stock exchange transactions (in paper pesos):		
First six months, 1933.....		262, 200, 000
First six months, 1934.....		319, 700, 000

BRAZIL

Foreign trade (in paper contos):	Exports	Imports
First six months, 1933.....	1, 353, 408	995, 493
First six months, 1934.....	1, 661, 078	1, 137, 782

CHILE

Index of mining production (1927-29=100):	
June 1933.....	41. 3
June 1934.....	59. 7
Gold production (in kilos):	
First six months, 1933.....	1, 883
First six months, 1934.....	3, 276

CHILE—continued

Index of wholesale prices (1913=100):

June 1933	357. 8
June 1934	351. 7

Foreign trade—Merchandise (in millions of gold pesos):

	Exports	Imports
Monthly average, 1933	28. 6	15. 1
Monthly average, first half, 1934	42. 8	14. 6

Bills protested (in millions of pesos):

First six months, 1933	6. 1
First six months, 1934	5. 1

Savings (in millions of pesos):

June 1933	240. 6
June 1934	303. 5

Bank clearings (in millions of pesos):

June 1933	904. 4
June 1934	1, 066. 2

COLOMBIA

Foreign trade (in thousands of pesos):	Exports	Imports
First six months, 1933	28, 383	20, 669
First six months, 1934	75, 307	35, 183

Bank clearings (in thousands of pesos):

July 1933	30, 871
July 1934	56, 961

Bank deposits (in thousands of pesos):

May 1933	54, 850
May 1934	60, 015

Index of stock quotations—Bogotá (1927=100):

July 1933	46. 98
July 1934	70. 57

Notes in circulation (in thousands of pesos):

July 1933	25, 950
July 1934	36, 511

CUBA

Bank clearings—Habana (in pesos):

Five weeks ended September 15, 1933	26, 855, 205
Five weeks ended September 15, 1934	36, 379, 288

ECUADOR

Exports from Guayaquil (in sueres):

June 1933	2, 346, 787
June 1934	5, 869, 532

Bank deposits (in sueres):

June 1933	26, 176, 854
June 1934	27, 820, 955

Notes in circulation (in sueres):

June 1933	28, 092, 110
June 1934	41, 125, 635

Cacao receipts at Guayaquil (in quintals of 46 kilos):

January-June 1933	169, 325
January-June 1934	268, 326

MEXICO

Index of wholesale prices— (1929=100):		
August 1933.....		92. 3
August 1934.....		94. 2
Foreign trade (in millions of pesos):	Exports	Imports
First seven months, 1933.....	177	127
First seven months, 1934.....	368	193
Bank deposits (time and sight) (in millions of pesos):		
May 1933.....		214. 9
May 1934.....		294. 7
Note circulation (in millions of pesos):		
June 1933.....		61. 4
June 1934.....		98. 5

PERU

Foreign trade (in thousands of soles):	Exports	Imports
First five months, 1933.....	75, 921	32, 255
First five months, 1934.....	104, 379	56, 805
Index of wholesale prices (1913=100):		
Average, 1933.....		180. 2
July 1934.....		188. 8
Index of bond quotations (1926=100):		
Average, 1933.....		85. 5
July 1934.....		100. 0
Index of stock prices (1926=100):		
Average, 1933.....		68. 8
July 1934.....		84. 9
Bank clearings (in millions of soles):		
August 1933.....		43. 7
July 1934.....		53. 6
Bills protested (in soles):		
Monthly average, 1933.....		93, 000
July 1934.....		17, 000

URUGUAY

Foreign trade (in pesos):	Exports	Imports
First three months, 1933.....	21, 991, 958	17, 145, 893
First three months, 1934.....	26, 471, 249	21, 633, 035
Bank clearings (in pesos):		
April 1933.....		44, 378, 606
April 1934.....		57, 726, 125

II

Despite the economic improvement which has taken place in the Latin American countries considered in the foregoing section, governmental control of operations in foreign exchange continues in effect in a number of countries. A survey of the present situation discloses that since control was widely adopted two or more years ago, it has spread to new countries, is quite rigid in a number of nations, and the introduction of various new factors has made the situation considerably more complicated than it was originally. In addition, the

establishment of exchange control has been followed in several republics by the imposition of various other types of import controls, in order to make the management of exchange more effective. There will now be noted briefly some of the outstanding features of the present exchange control situation in the countries of Latin America.

ARGENTINA

In Argentina, recent months have witnessed the negotiation of special trade agreements with the Belgium-Luxembourg Custom Union, with the Netherlands, and with Switzerland. These agreements, as well as that with Great Britain in 1933, provide, with regard to exchange, for preferential treatment in the sense that as these nations purchase more from Argentina than they sell, sufficient exchange shall be provided for all their exports to Argentina, less an amount necessary to cover the payment by Argentina of debt service owed in other countries.

The actual machinery of exchange control in force in Argentina at present provides that for ordinary commercial purposes importers apply to the exchange control authorities for an advance permit which, if approved, will allow them to bid for exchange when the merchandise ordered is later received at the customhouse. This advance permit system allows the exchange control office two types of control, one over the class of merchandise which may be imported, and the other over the origin of such goods. For those importers who cannot obtain permits to bid for exchange, recourse must be had to the open market, where rates are somewhat higher than those at which exchange may be secured at the official rate through the control authorities. Exchange in the open market is derived from the exportation of various products which have not been important in the past, and the exportation of which Argentina desires to stimulate. Open market exchange is also derived from other sources than exports.

BOLIVIA

Although an improvement in the situation in the international tin market during the last year, plus better conditions for other minerals, has aided the general Bolivian position, the exchange situation has continued most difficult for importers of general merchandise, so much so that the Bolivian market for certain classes of goods, particularly luxury articles, has virtually disappeared. The demands of the Government for exchange consume practically all that available in the official market, and general importers, when able to obtain exchange, must pay at least twice the official rate, this exchange being secured in the curb or illegal market. Another market for exchange also exists, cover in this being derived from gold sold to the Central Bank.

BRAZIL

Recent control regulations in Brazil allow exchange derived from the exportation of commodities other than coffee to be sold freely; on coffee, exporters must sell to the Bank of Brazil a certain percentage of the value of the coffee at the official exchange rate, while the remainder may be negotiated freely. For imports of merchandise, the bank has decreed that exchange could be secured at the official rate for 60 percent of the value of the imports, the remaining 40 percent to be secured in the open market. In addition, the bank has abolished the so-called "gray" exchange market, in which exchange could be obtained at a rate between the official and the open market quotations.

CHILE

Three exchange markets are in operation in Chile, the official, the export bill, and the curb, the latter being illegal. The amount of exchange available in the official market is largely consumed by the requirements of the Government; importers of merchandise considered necessary for the country may obtain exchange in the export bill market, when such exchange is available, at rates which are, however, much higher than the official quotations; and exchange is available in the curb market at rates also substantially higher than those quoted in the official market. This latter source provides the only supply of exchange to cover a considerable amount of imports. On the export side, the Government has negotiated so-called "compensation" or clearing agreements with a number of European governments, by which the amount of exchange arising from exports to those countries is divided between payments for current exports and the liquidation of foreign credits blocked in Chile, owed to nationals of the country in question. This situation, which consumes a considerable portion of the exchange available from Chilean exports, makes it difficult to obtain exchange to cover imports from other countries into Chile, except at high rates.

COLOMBIA

By the exchange control regulations in force in Colombia, the purchase of exchange requires a permit, which is issued by the exchange control authorities. The amount of imports and the classes of goods to be imported, as well as the country of origin, are thus determined by the control board. For exports, exporters are required to sell to the control board 20 percent of the value of the exchange they possess, being permitted to sell the remaining 80 percent in the open market at the highest rates they can obtain, to those persons holding permits from the control board to purchase such exchange. At

present, the difference between the official exchange rate and that at which exporters sell bills to approved purchasers is slight.

COSTA RICA

In Costa Rica, an exchange control board regulates operations in foreign exchange, for the purchase of which a permit must be obtained. Permits are granted to purchase exchange on a priority basis, and according to the type of merchandise to be imported. Such permits are good for a five-day period, within which time exchange must be secured or the permit will expire. Exporters are required to sell foreign exchange in their possession to the registered banks within 30 days, and other holders of exchange within 60 days. There is a curb market in operation, in which exchange may be secured at rates considerably higher than through official channels.

ECUADOR

Exchange available in the official market in Ecuador, which is secured from exporters and other holders of exchange, who must sell 25 percent of their holdings to the control board, is largely consumed in the liquidation of old accounts, the payment of which has been blocked for a considerable period. The remaining 75 percent of exchange in the hands of exporters and others may be negotiated in the open market, in which rates are substantially higher than in the official market. It is expected that exchange control will be abolished once all blocked accounts are liquidated, but it is believed that this may take a considerable period.

HONDURAS

Exchange control went into effect in Honduras on June 1, 1934, under the management of a commission similar to that controlling exchange operations in other countries. Importers must secure permits from the commission for the purchase of exchange. The establishment of exchange control in Honduras, it is understood, was to enable the government to have better control of exchange operations, rather than because of any acute shortage of foreign drafts.

NICARAGUA

Prior permits from the exchange control authorities in Nicaragua are necessary for the purchase of foreign exchange in the official market. To stimulate the exports of commodities not previously exported from Nicaragua on a large scale, the exchange control authorities have permitted importers who are also exporters to sell freely a certain percentage of the exchange derived from their exports, the percentage varying with the product exported. The remaining

exchange held by such persons, as well as other exchange, is to be sold to the control authorities. Special arrangements regarding the disposal of exchange have also been made for entities investing capital in Nicaraguan enterprises of a truly national character. In addition to the official market, there also exists the curb or illegal market, where exchange may be secured at rates higher than the official quotations.

PARAGUAY

The large demand by the government for the available exchange in Paraguay makes it difficult for general importers to obtain exchange in the official market set up by the exchange control commission, and recourse must therefore be had to the curb market, where rates are considerably higher. The scarcity of exchange has greatly curtailed the importation of all merchandise except that deemed by the control authorities necessary for the country.

URUGUAY

Legislation under consideration at the present time by the Uruguayan Congress may change considerably the foreign exchange control situation in that country. No details are included here, therefore, regarding the existing situation.

III

In the two foregoing sections of this article there have been noted the evident economic improvement which has taken place in several Latin American countries during the last year and some of the recent developments in the control of foreign exchange operations. Studying these two aspects of the situation, the question must arise immediately as to the cause for the apparent improvement on one hand and, on the other, for continued external pressure on currencies, blocked foreign accounts, and other phenomena of a difficult financial position. Particularly pertinent is the fact that despite an increase in the value of exports, and the creation of larger favorable trade balances, the exchange control situation continues so difficult. In a number of countries foreign debt service has been suspended, other foreign payments have been curtailed, imports have been reduced, and yet such action has not relieved appreciably the foreign exchange situation. It is evident, therefore, that the answer to this question must lie beyond the mere point of whether or not the foreign trade of the Latin American countries is producing an excess of visible exports. Rather, there must be considered those invisible items in the balances of international payments of those Republics which have a controlling effect upon their international financial position.

Two factors appear to play an important part in the present disequilibrium in the balances of international payments of various Latin American countries:

1. Apparently large favorable trade balances disappear, and in some cases even become unfavorable balances, when there is deducted from the value of exports the amount which does not actually return to the country from which the products or services originated, because of foreign capital ownership or control. In Colombia, for example, total trade statistics show a large favorable trade balance for that country, but upon deducting from that balance the amounts credited to bananas, petroleum, and platinum, the production of which is under foreign control, the favorable balance is greatly reduced, or at times entirely disappears, as happened in 1933. In that year the nominal value of all exports was over 72 million pesos, but after deducting the value of the above-mentioned commodities, amounted to only about 56 million. On the other hand, imports, valued at approximately 50 million pesos, increased in value to over 58 million when there were added such factors as transportation charges and other items which had to be paid to foreigners. In this same connection, the Central Bank of Chile has pointed out (in its July 1934 *Bulletin*) that "however favorable this result [a larger favorable trade balance in the first half of 1934 than for the whole of 1933] may appear, it must be borne in mind that the figures of our trade balance merely represent the position in the light of statistics. The figures covering imports, subject only to some technical corrections of minor importance, are exact in the sense that they represent the payment of obligations of Chile arising from her foreign trade. The figures covering exports, however, even after allowing for the necessary correction required for establishing the real values of the principal products such as nitrate, iodine, copper, iron, and wool, do not represent, in the amount that they exceed imports, the total means available for effecting other foreign payments, and they must be written down considerably by those amounts which do not return to the country and which are retained abroad to cover profits, reimbursements, and amortization of foreign capital invested in the basic industries of the country."

An analysis of an estimate of the international payments of Uruguay for 1933 made by the Bank of the Republic of that country emphasizes further the point mentioned above. Disregarding certain minor items on each side of the estimate, which tend to offset each other, the amount of important items on the debit side, including service of amortization bonds, foreign-debt service, pensions, and retirements, and other important payments, plus returns on foreign investments, are placed at about 22 million pesos. To balance this, there is the net favorable merchandise surplus which,

after adjustments for under- or over-valuation, allowances for smuggled goods, and so forth, amounts nominally to about 18 million pesos. The amount of this nominal net balance which actually accrues to Uruguayans the estimate does not attempt to calculate, nor can it be attempted here, but it is known that a certain sum must be deducted representing the value of exports controlled by foreign companies in Uruguay. Moreover, Uruguayan customs valuations on imports are generally considered to be at least 25 percent less than the real values. This factor in itself would be enough to wipe out the theoretical trade surplus, without considering the value of exports not accruing to Uruguayans. In addition to the foregoing items on each side of the estimate, the remaining credit items, such as gold exports, export duties and charges, net return on tourist expenditures, and so forth, do not appear sufficient to have effected a balance in the payments of Uruguay for 1933. In view of this situation, the continued external pressure on the peso may be understood.

2. Prior to the depression, the importation of foreign capital for the economic development of the Latin American countries was for a number of years a most important factor in the balances of international payments of these countries. Since 1929 this capital movement, for either direct or indirect investment, has virtually ceased, and the Latin American countries have found it difficult to make such adjustments in their international accounts as will offset the disappearance of this important item.

In view of the two foregoing points, one of two situations must develop. Either the balances of international payments of the Latin American Republics will continue out of adjustment for the considerable period necessary for changes which will effect a balance to occur naturally, or these countries, through action on the part of creditor nations, will be enabled to bring their accounts once more into a normal balance. Such action by creditor nations would include both accepting such amounts of goods or services from the debtors as would permit export surpluses to be increased to a point to be of material assistance to the nationals of debtor nations, and the extension of such financial aid as would allow the financial structure of the debtors to be restored to a position of strength.

IV

The three preceding sections of this article have attempted to show that a marked degree of economic recovery has taken place in various Latin American Republics during the last year; that despite this, the foreign-exchange situation continues difficult in a number of countries; and finally that the solution of the foreign-exchange problem

must lie in such a readjustment of the balances of international payments of the Latin American Republics as will enable them to resume a more normal position in international economic relations.

In the light of the foregoing, what developments may be expected in the near future in the international commercial and financial position of Latin American nations? Two alternatives would appear possible:

1. There may be a continuance of the present apparent tendency to consider international trade on the basis of relations between two individual countries; this situation has grown out of foreign-exchange shortages, and has resulted in the negotiation of compensation or clearing agreements. It does not appear that the continuance of such a tendency would result in an increase in international trade, but rather in diversion into new channels. If such is the case, then it cannot be expected that a sufficiently large volume of foreign exchange will be developed to ease the present situation.

2. A movement may set in which will result in policies being adopted which will consider international trade on its usual triangular basis, with less attention than at present to commercial balances between individual countries. Several recently negotiated bilateral agreements by Latin American countries would indicate that the fundamental character of international trade is not being ignored. However, for the complete return to this theory of international trade, it would appear that important changes must take place in the present attitude of many nations toward international commerce. Such changes envisage action on the part of both debtor and creditor nations.

On the part of debtor nations, of which the Latin American countries form an important group, it would seem that action would be necessary looking toward a reduction of trade barriers, particularly nontariff barriers. This would include primarily action in regard to exchange control measures, together with a reestablishment of the policy of equality of treatment for all foreign nations, disregarding the trade-balance situation with individual foreign countries.

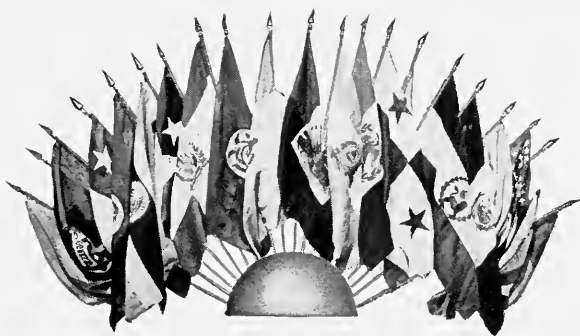
On the part of the creditor nations, however, even more important action would seem necessary, if the debtor nations are to be placed in a position to adopt a more liberal attitude toward international trade, and seek less to become economically independent in lines for which, by the nature of their national economies, they are not as well fitted as other countries. The principal obligation which appears to rest upon the creditor nations is to extend to debtor nations such facilities as will permit their international obligations to be balanced, principally as a result of sending sufficiently large quantities of goods to, or performing such services for, creditor nations, as will provide

a sufficient balance to cover all the external obligations of the debtors. Further, unless the position of the Latin American foreign debts in default is to remain at the present impasse for a number of years to come, it would appear that capital from creditor countries must once more move to assist and stimulate economic development in debtor nations. For many years, the importation of foreign capital has been an important item in the international balances of a number of Latin American nations, and with the curtailment of such capital movements no substitute means of financial support has been available to Latin American Republics. If it appears from the present situation of the international capital markets that it will be impossible to provide new capital for Latin America, then it would seem that the only alternative available to creditor nations to assist themselves by aiding debtor countries is to open their markets much more widely than at present to the goods of the debtors.¹

The Seventh International Conference of American States, which met at Montevideo in December 1933, upheld the principle of equality of treatment for all nations in international trade, through the universal adoption and maintenance of the most-favored-nation clause in commercial treaties. If international trade is to be revived to the volume attained in the years preceding the depression, or at least improved from its present low levels, it would appear that all the important trading nations must act along lines which will permit international commerce to move in its normal channels. It seems evident from the World Economic Conference of June 1933 that action along multilateral lines cannot be achieved at the present time. The alternative, therefore, would appear to be that proposed and accepted at Montevideo; that until such time as multilateral action can be obtained, bilateral negotiations be carried on with equality of treatment for all nations as the basic principle.

The importance of foreign trade to the nations of Latin America is an established fact. For these nations to carry out in their foreign commercial relations the principles enunciated at Montevideo, creditor nations must be prepared either to accept more goods from them, or to make capital available once more in cases where such assistance may be required for productive ends. It appears that only upon such a basis may the Latin American Republics be enabled to assume their proper role in the international economic field.

¹ See "Trade Agreements between the United States and Latin America," by Guillermo A. Suro, in the *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, November 1934.—EDITOR.



PAN AMERICAN UNION NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

The Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, was reelected chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union for the ensuing year at the first regular meeting of the Board held November 7. The Ambassador of Peru, Señor Don Manuel de Freyre y Santander, was elected vice chairman, succeeding the Minister of Venezuela, Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya.

Columbus Lighthouse Report.—The Board considered the report of its Permanent Committee on the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse which, by resolution of the International Conference of American States, is to be erected at Santo Domingo, the first permanent European settlement in the New World. A design for the memorial has already been selected following a world-wide architectural competition. With a view to undertaking a campaign for raising funds to erect the memorial, the report approved by the Governing Board recommends that National Committees on the Columbus Lighthouse be appointed by the Governments of the several countries, members of the Union, and that these committees consider ways and means of raising funds in their respective countries to be utilized in the construction of the memorial. At the same time the committee recommended and the Board approved the suggestion that the Governments be requested to indicate the sums that they may be willing to contribute to the erection of the lighthouse and the dates on which these sums will be made available.

The resolution of the International Conference of American States contemplates that the memorial shall be erected through the cooperation of the Governments and the peoples of the nations of America, and of any others that may wish to contribute.

Powers of attorney.—The Board also acted on the resolution adopted at the Seventh Pan American Conference providing that a committee of experts be appointed to study the question of powers of attorney and the possibility of bringing about uniformity in the legislation on this subject in the countries of America. The committee consists of the Minister of Venezuela, Dr. Pedro Manuel Arcaya; the Minister of Panama, Dr. Ricardo J. Alfaro; the Minister of Haiti, M. Albert Blanchet; Dr. E. Gil Borges, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union; and Mr. David Grant of the American Bar Association, who is chairman of a committee that has made a study of legislation on powers of attorney. The results of the work of the committee will be submitted to the Governing Board.

Communication on the Chaco.—A communication from the Minister of Foreign Affairs of El Salvador, Dr. Miguel Angel Araujo, was submitted to the Board. In a dispatch addressed to the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, other than Bolivia and Paraguay, under date of September 12, the Foreign Minister of El Salvador suggested that the Governments authorize their diplomatic representatives in Washington to propose, as soon as possible, to the Governments of Bolivia and Paraguay the acceptance of an armistice of one year, or for such time as may be considered sufficient for the two countries to study a just and friendly solution to their differences. Owing to the fact that all the members of the Board had not received instructions from their respective Governments, no action could be taken by the Board.

Pan American Railway Committee.—The Board designated Señor Don Juan A. Briano, of Argentina, chairman of the Pan American Railway Committee, to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Mr. Fred Lavis of the United States. Señor Briano has been acting chairman of the committee since the resignation of Mr. Lavis more than a year ago.



PAN AMERICAN PROGRESS

TREATIES AND INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS

United States-Pan American Republics.—The additional protocol to the General Convention of Inter-American Conciliation, signed at the Seventh International Conference of American States on December 26, 1933, was ratified by the United States Senate on June 15 last and the instrument of ratification deposited with the Chilean Government on August 18, 1934. The General Convention, signed at Washington in 1929, provides that the commissions of inquiry set up under the Gondra Treaty of 1923 should also be commissions of conciliation. The additional protocol to the convention gives a permanent character to these commissions so that they may be ready to act should a controversy arise, rather than be appointed after the controversy has arisen as was provided in the Convention of 1929 and the Treaty of 1923. The protocol stipulates that each country signatory to the treaty of 1923 shall name, by means of a bilateral agreement to take the form of an exchange of notes with each of the other signatories, the two members to serve on each commission of investigation and conciliation. The Pan American Union is to be notified of the names of the two members at the time of the deposit of ratification of the protocol, in order to secure the immediate organization of the commissions. The fifth member of each commission is to be appointed through the agency of the Governing Board of the Union, acting in accordance with Article 4 of the Treaty of 1923.

The Conventions on Rights and Duties of States and on Extradition, also signed at the Montevideo Conference, were ratified by the Senate on the same date with the reservations made by the American delegation at the time of signing. (See *Final Act*, Seventh International Conference of American States, pp. 187-196, and 155-167.) The instruments of ratification were deposited with the Pan American Union on July 13, 1934.

DROUGHT RELIEF IN NORTHEASTERN BRAZIL

The Federal Government of Brazil will spend every year four percent of its not otherwise pledged tax receipts in carrying out a permanent, systematic plan against the effects of periodic droughts in the northeastern States, according to the new Constitution adopted

last July. Three-fourths of this appropriation is to be spent in construction of the ordinary works planned and the remainder is to be deposited in a special fund to be used for emergency relief at the request of the States. The new constitutional provision stipulates that the States and municipalities within the drought zone are also to set aside a similar percentage of their revenue for economic assistance to their respective populations.

Northeastern Brazil includes the States of Piauí, Ceará, Rio Grande do Norte, Paraíba, Pernambuco, Alagoas, Sergipe and Bahia, Piauí and Bahia sometimes being left out of this classification. The area of the eight States is 459,597 square miles and they had a population of 13,239,378 in 1930. The principal products of this region are cotton, tobacco, sugar, cacao, rice, manioc, corn, carnauba wax, and babassú nuts.

Ordinarily the drought zone embraces most of Ceará and Rio Grande do Norte and the part of Paraíba lying inland from the Serra da Borborema. In the years in which the drought is most severe it extends through the western part of Pernambuco, northern Bahia and eastern Piauí. Because of the irregular rainfall all of this section of the northeast except a 20-mile strip along the coast is semi-arid. Along this coastal strip, where the principal cities are located, rainfall is abundant and well distributed throughout the year. Inland, there is a marked dry season, and rainfall is very irregular. The settler may sow at what should be the beginning of the rainy season, during the winter months, and wait in vain for the first rains. A month goes by, his seeds are dead, and then it rains torrentially, more perhaps than in all the preceding year, when there might have been light rains evenly distributed throughout the season. Then it may not rain for the rest of the season. With no crops, no feed and the livestock dying once their meager reserve stocks are exhausted, the settlers flock to the coastal cities, arriving half dead from hunger and fatigue. There being few facilities to take care of the consequent overcrowding, epidemics often result from the insanitary conditions which prevail.

The effects of the droughts were felt as far back as 1692.¹ During the last century there were three drought periods which were particularly disastrous. The first, in 1824-25, was accompanied by an epidemic of smallpox and took the lives of about one-third of the population of Ceará. It was at this time that Government aid was first given to the northeast in the form of money and food. This system of direct relief was continued until the second major drought

¹ Alceu de Lellis in *O Nordeste Brasileiro* in the *Geographia do Brasil*, compiled by the Geographical Society of Rio de Janeiro to commemorate the first centenary of independence (1822-1922) records droughts in the Brazilian northeast during the following years: 1700-11; 1721; 1723-27; 1736-37; 1744-15; 1772; 1776-78; 1784; 1790-93; 1805; 1808-9; 1810; 1816-17; 1824-25; 1827; 1830; 1833; 1844-45; 1877-79; 1888-89; 1891; 1898; 1900; 1902-3; 1907; 1915; 1919. Since then there has not been a severe drought until the one in 1930-33.

period in 1844-45, when a state of panic developed and the population fled to die of plague in the coastal cities after facing the hardships of long journeys. Thirty-two years afterward the drought of 1877-79 was a major catastrophe, causing the death of about 300,000 persons. The distress was so great that when the news reached the Court at Rio de Janeiro the Emperor is reported to have said that "to help the famished in the north the crown jewels will be sold if necessary." However, it was not until some years afterward that effective measures began to be taken by the national government to solve the drought problem.

When the 1930-33 drought began all efforts were at first aimed at the immediate relief of the distressed population. Reviewing the work done during that period, President Vargas said at the opening session of the Constitutional Assembly on November 15, 1933, that it was impossible to find work immediately for all who needed it, and it had been necessary to establish in Ceará, where the crisis was most deeply felt, seven concentration camps which received some 105,000 persons. In a short time, however, the *Inspeccoria de Obras Contra as Seccas*, the Federal bureau in charge of drought relief, had given employment to some 270,000 men in railway construction, which at the rate of 4 persons per family represented 1,080,000 individuals who had received relief. This is counting only persons working for the Inspectoria and only on railway construction, and does not include those employed in other services, such as the construction of private reservoirs in cooperation with the Government, and the erection of post office and telegraph buildings. To do away with the overcrowding which was beginning to take place in the cities, 10,445 persons were furnished with free transportation away from urban centers. Means were provided for receiving the drought sufferers as they abandoned the affected zones and lodging them temporarily until they could be placed in agricultural settlements or on public-works projects. These agricultural colonies were established on land provided by the northeastern States in zones not affected by drought, settlers receiving a home, agricultural implements, seeds, fertilizers, medical attention, and 15 days' employment each month until the first crops were gathered.

President Vargas also stated on the same occasion that bureaucratic routine and politics had made the Inspectoria almost inoperative as a bureau for constructive work in drought relief. Due principally to the lack of a comprehensive plan, he said, its efforts had long been misspent on small scattered projects which were a continuous drain upon the treasury but gave no hope of a definite solution to the problem. Accordingly the Inspectoria was reorganized through decree no. 19726 of February 20, 1931, which established guiding principles for the drought relief work.

Reservoirs constructed in Ceará

A large number of wells was also drilled despite the difficulties encountered as a result of the drought itself. The total cost of the relief work was 233,521,818 milreis (\$19,235,549 at the current rate of exchange). Besides rendering assistance to the victims of the drought, the works constructed, the President believes, constitute a definite step toward the solution of the problem. The constitutional provision recently enacted is meant to assure the continuity of these efforts.—G. A. S.

THE FOREIGN TRADE COUNCIL OF BRAZIL

The Federal Foreign Trade Council of Brazil, established by a decree of June 20, 1934, was formally installed on August 6. The council was created especially to encourage the development of Brazilian export trade. In fulfillment of that purpose it will study all phases of the marketing of Brazilian products abroad; propose barter agreements and other measures for opening new markets or enlarging existing ones; act as intermediary between domestic and foreign entities; put commercial organizations in Brazil in touch with one another and with foreign bodies; give advice on advertising the country and its products in other lands; and submit its opinion on international commercial treaties and similar measures. It will also study and suggest means of bringing about greater domestic consumption of national products, and investigate the relation of imports to domestic production and consumption and to foreign trade.

The council is composed of nine members: Dr. Sebastião Sampaio, representing the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, executive director; Dr. Armando Vidal, of the Ministry of the Treasury and the National Coffee Bureau, secretary; Senhor João Maria de Lacerda, of the Ministry of Labor; Senhor Arthur de Carvalho, of the Ministry of Agriculture; Senhor Marcos de Souza Dantas, of the Bank of Brazil; Senhor Raul de Araujo Maia, of the Commercial Association of Rio de Janeiro and the Federation of Commercial Associations; Deputy Euvaldo Lodi, of the Industrial Federation of Brazil; Senhor Arthur Torres Filho, of the National Society of Agriculture; and Senhor Victor Vianna. Four technical advisers, Dr. Antonio Eduardo de Lenhoff Britto, Senhor Clovis Ribeiro, Senhor Léo d'Affonseca, and Senhor Valentim Bouças, will assist the council in its deliberations.

President Getulio Vargas, who is *ex officio* the chairman of the council, gave an address at the opening meeting, in which he said:

For a long time we have been trying to solve the foreign-trade problems of Brazil by adopting experimental formulas, applying *a priori* methods, without any foundation in facts. The lack of a central organization for collecting and disseminating all measures to stimulate and protect our products and place

them in national and foreign markets made any considered examination and the sure knowledge of the prime necessities of national economy practically impossible.

Technical matters, many of them urgent and necessary, get entangled in the web of official bureaus. The different ministries, the many Federal and State bureaus, the several associations founded to promote production and consumption, have been functioning like so many watertight compartments, without any point of contact which would direct their activities.

The Federal Council is . . . devoted to studying the most adequate means for perfecting and expanding our foreign trade, freeing it from difficulties and fetters, protecting and preserving it in a rational manner. Furthermore, the council will be an organ of information, propaganda, and market examination, of technical advice for producers, and especially of coordination between the branches of the Government, thus permitting the constructive discussion of such financial questions of growing importance in modern life as those referring to foreign exchange, the favorable or unfavorable balance of trade, frozen bank credits, and tariff wars caused by exaggerated economic nationalism and the unsteadiness and variations of monetary standards. . . .

And if the usefulness of a foreign trade council is apparent in normal eras, it is still more justifiable at this moment of great economic, political, and social disturbances from which the world is suffering. The wealth of a State is a consequence of good administrative standards. The State must examine its possibilities and proceed to a thoughtful consideration of its reserves, in order to regulate its buying and selling.

The situation of our country at present binds the Government to the immediate task of the economic organization of Brazil, by increasing the distribution of our products within our borders and abroad. We shall thus find greater facilities for overcoming, little by little, the difficulties arising from the world crisis. The problem of coffee in Brazil has already been solved. This statement is corroborated everywhere by statistics, and consumption is appreciably increasing. The exportation of our raw materials is also increasing auspiciously. As for the financial situation, the Bank of Brazil is stimulating national production.

We are hopeful, therefore, that from the work of the Federal Foreign Trade Council will come the best of results for the good of the country. There are here present representatives of the three federations of producers and their able advisers, all charged with watching over our national patrimony. With no other aspiration than that dictated by our country's interests, and inspired only by the desire to serve it, we sincerely pledge ourselves to justify, through the value of its returns, the existence of the organization beginning to function today.

SAVINGS BANK ANNIVERSARY IN CHILE

September 6, 1934, was the 50th anniversary of the establishment of savings banks in Chile. The first one, created as a dependency of the Mortgage Credit Bank, was until 1901 the only institution of its kind in the country. In that year another was opened in Valparaíso with a government subsidy, and in the next few years others were established in 12 more cities in the Republic, all of them independent of the Mortgage Credit Bank. In 1910, however, all these Provincial banks were united in a single institution, called the "National Savings Bank", and their administration was also intrusted to the council of the Mortgage

Credit Bank. The two savings banks continued functioning separately until 1927, when they were consolidated as the National Savings Bank. At present it is administered by a board of directors, composed of a chairman and six members, appointed by the Government from lists submitted by organizations representing the various activities of the nation. It has at present 114 branches and agencies throughout the nation, and its deposits have grown from \$7,778.13 pesos, on September 6, 1884, to 601,411,497 pesos on June 30, 1934.

THE BENEFICENT SOCIETIES OF BUENOS AIRES AND LIMA

Two charitable organizations of South America celebrated notable anniversaries this year. The Beneficent Society of Buenos Aires, the older of the two, celebrated the centenary of its installation in its present quarters, while that of Lima marked the completion of a hundred years of excellent service. To be elected to membership in either of these societies has always been esteemed by the most prominent families an honor and a public trust.

As a result of ecclesiastical reform measures passed in 1822, the charitable brotherhoods of the church were suppressed in Argentina. The head of the cabinet, Bernardino Rivadavia, realizing the need of some official organization especially for the protection and education of girls, organized the following year the Sociedad de Beneficencia which, remarkably enough for that period, he entrusted to a group of women prominent both socially and intellectually. Eleven years later, on July 10, 1834, the society opened the School for Orphan Girls in the building which for a century has been the center of its labors.

The Sociedad de Beneficencia has not enjoyed an uninterrupted history of official support. Opposition on the part of the tyrant Rosas resulted in the loss of subsidies and recognition in 1838, and for the next 14 years the devoted women carried on the work as best they could in secret and with pitifully limited funds. On March 16, 1852, however, less than two months after the fall of Rosas, and more than a year before the government was finally reorganized, the society was "reinstalled"; from then on its record has been a noble one of expanding activities for the common weal. At present it operates 23 institutions; these include general and specialized hospitals, homes for the aged, the insane, and orphans, a sanitarium, a foundling home, and a fresh-air camp.

The Public Welfare Society of Lima, founded on June 12, 1834, inherited a noble tradition of almost three hundred years of welfare work. A hospital for the poor had been established in 1538, only three years after the founding of the city, and in the succeeding centuries the Spanish authorities as well as the monastic orders gave

attention to the medical needs of the poor. In 1818, during the latter days of Spanish rule, the Royal Charity Board (Junta de Real Beneficencia) was established, and during the early years of the Republic its work was continued by official welfare bureaus which were constantly being reorganized. The results still left something to be desired, so on June 12, 1834, Provisional President Luis José Orbegosa, convinced that the best course was to entrust the direction of hospitals and other institutions of mercy to public spirited citizens, issued a decree establishing the Welfare Society of Lima and naming the forty charter members. On July 24, the bylaws were officially approved and the society entered upon its distinguished career. Its funds are drawn from the income from bequests, gifts, lotteries run by the society, special taxes imposed by the Government on certain articles, and a small Government subsidy. On April 30 last the society had 5,432 individuals under its care, and in its different establishments it employed more than 1,500 people. In 1847 it had 1,279 persons on its rolls; at the present time it is estimated that the number has increased to 8,000, without taking into account those cared for in dispensaries, clinics, and milk stations. Its budget for the last few years has averaged over 4,000,000 soles annually.

The beginning of its second century finds the Welfare Society active and useful. It administers wisely and well the four most important public hospitals in Lima and its suburbs, as well as convalescent homes, orphanages, establishments for the aged, for beggars, for neglected children, and for the insane, and other similar institutions. In commenting on the significance of the occasion, *El Comercio* of Lima remarked editorially on the date of the anniversary:

"The Public Welfare Society of Lima . . . was established to unite under a single direction all social-service organizations. . . . From then until now the Welfare Society has had great influence throughout the country. . . .

"Its sphere of action is not limited to the city of Lima. On many occasions it has given aid and moral and material assistance to other districts of the Republic when they were threatened by danger or had been the victims of some catastrophe. It also has extended its philanthropic labor beyond national borders, cooperating with institutions in neighboring countries. . . .

"The 100-year-old organization has developed in accordance with the times. It has not been static and unchanging. In keeping with this progressive age, it is not only a society of charitable persons dedicated to good works, as the decree creating it stipulated, but a corporation which does not overlook the conquests of science and the modern principles of social service. The hospitals have been reorganized. We have seen appear, too, child health centers, antituberculosis

dispensaries, and medical clinics. A technical character was given to relief by the creation of the nurses' school, and when economic conditions permitted, medical specialists came from Europe to teach us the latest scientific methods. The society has also included in its activities the construction of houses for workmen.

"The Society of Public Welfare of Lima is not merely a local organization. The quality of the establishments which it administers makes it national and Peruvian. The Pérez Aranibar Home for Children, which may be compared with patriotic satisfaction with those in the most advanced countries of the world, welcomes children from all Peru; the Olavegoya Sanatorium is for invalids from the entire country; and the Larco Herrera Asylum opens its doors without distinction to people from every part of the Republic. . . .

"In spite of present limitations, the Public Welfare Society of Lima is satisfactorily continuing its work. The cooperation of the State would give it better weapons with which to protect the life and the health of its citizens. . . .

"To the director, Señor Carlos Larrabure y Correa, who generously and intelligently devotes himself to the good work which has been entrusted to him, and to his coworkers, is due the continued efficiency of the organization today rounding out 100 years of fruitful and useful existence."

CHILD WELFARE INFORMATION

New Child Welfare Institutions in Chile, Mexico, and Argentina.—On May 30, 1934 President Alessandri of Chile signed a decree presented by the Minister of Justice creating the Children's Protective Council (Consejo de Defensa del Niño). The new organization will be composed of the governor of the Province of Santiago; the director of the National Children's Home; the public health director; the administrator of the compulsory labor insurance savings bank; the administrator of the Home for Vagrant Children; the director general of protection for minors; and one other member appointed by the President of the Republic. One of the first duties of the council was to establish as soon as possible nonpolitical provisional or regional boards for child protection. The council held its preliminary meeting on June 8 in President Alessandri's study; it was attended by the Minister of Justice, Señor Oswaldo Vial; the mayor of Santiago, Señor Julio Bustamante; the director of public health, Dr. Leonardo Guzmán; the director of the labor insurance bank, Señor Santiago Labarea; Juvenile Court Judge Samuel Gajardo; Señor Francisco Huneeus, who was elected chairman of the council, and Dr. Hugo Lea Plaza.

On May 8, 1934, President Rodríguez of Mexico empowered the Department of the Interior to establish in the Federal District a Welfare Board for Minors with three divisions—welfare, consultative, and executive. The welfare division of the board is to be composed of a chairman, to be appointed by the Department of the Interior; three vice chairmen, the chief of the department of social prevention, the chief of police of the Federal District, and the director of public welfare; and members chosen for their interest in education, penology, or social work. The consultative division will be made up of a physician, a lawyer, a professional man, and a specialist named by the Department of Labor. The executive division, under the leadership of the general secretary of the board, will work in three sections, investigation and social service, administration and finance, and publicity and propaganda. On June 27 the board, under the chairmanship of Señor Alejandro Quijano, was formally installed.

In Argentina President Justo signed on June 22 a law creating the National Board for Child Aid and authorizing the appropriation of 1,000,000 paper pesos, from general revenues, or their equivalent in national products, for its use. The primary purpose of the board, which is composed of one member each from the Ministry of War, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Argentine National Bank, and the Social Aid Board, and an appointee of the chief of the National Bureau of Health, is to provide children of school age with food and clothing, although it will also suggest to the President measures to help the board in its work.

Adoption in Chile and Costa Rica.—During the current year, two American nations have promulgated adoption laws. The Chilean law was signed by President Alessandri on January 3, that of Costa Rica by President Jiménez on July 14. The provisions of the two laws are similar, and reflect the Spanish legal tradition as regards the family.

In both cases the adopter must be at least 40 years of age, and without legitimate or recognized descendants. He must also be at least 15 years older than the adoptee. In Chile the adoption must be authorized by the ordinary court (*justicia ordinaria*) with knowledge of the case; in Costa Rica the consent of the adoptee or of his legal representatives is a prerequisite to adoption, and when the case comes before the court, representatives of the adoptee, the Ministry of Justice, and the National Child Welfare Board may present their views. In neither case does the adoption establish juridical relations between either adopter or adoptee and the family of the other. Both laws safeguard the property of the adoptee and specify his inheritance rights. The adoption may be annulled by the expressed desire of the adoptee within one year after he becomes legally competent in Chile,

and two years after attaining his majority or becoming legally competent in Costa Rica, by mutual consent in Chile, and by a court decree of ingratitude (Chile) or indignity (Costa Rica). In both laws the adopter has no claims on the property of the adoptee.

The Children's Code of Uruguay.—The Children's Code of Uruguay, promulgated April 6, 1934, includes all the regulations for protecting the life and welfare of children from the prenatal period until they come of age. The code is to be administered by a special council, composed of a chairman appointed by the President, and six members: the director of the Instituto de Clínica Pediátrica y Puericultura; a lawyer, appointed by the Supreme Court; a teacher, appointed by the Primary and Normal Education Council; and one delegate each representing the Labor Council, the Industrial Education Council, and private institutions for child welfare, the last three to be appointed by the President.

The code contains provisions for pregnant women, mothers, infants, and abnormal and sick children; for the care and education of children of preschool and school age; and for the care and protection of the socially handicapped and of children of employed mothers.

For expectant mothers there are mothers' lunch-rooms, mothers' homes, mothers' insurance, and instruction in prenatal hygiene. For infants there are child-health centers, a wet-nurse registry, the infants' home, crèches for children under three and for mothers with small children, and the placement of orphan or destitute children in families in preference to institutions.

For school children clinics and laboratories have been established as well as open-air schools, vacation schools, school camps, and training homes and school workshops for abnormal, defective, or crippled children; traveling child-health centers have also been organized.

The code makes education compulsory for all children between 6 and 14 years of age; in the future, no one who has not complied with the educational requirements will be eligible for any government position. Children between 5 and 16 shall be allowed to attend motion picture theaters only during the daytime and then to see only films previously approved by the council.

One of the most important innovations is the creation of the position of juvenile court judge. His duties are summed up in one paragraph: "Like a good father, to take measures appropriate for the protection of minors." Police and court procedure is established, and publicity of any kind related thereto is strictly forbidden. The loss or limitation of paternal authority, guardianship, and the placing of children on probation within or without their parents' homes, are also regulated.

Adoption is facilitated; the adopter must be at least 30 years of age, 20 years the senior of the adopted, of good character, and have been in charge of the adopted for at least two years previously.

Starting with the premise that "every child has the right to know who his parents are," the code states that proof of paternity may be furnished by the mother, and official investigation will be undertaken by the council under certain conditions. The legal status of natural children, their support, and other such matters are also regulated.

The question of child labor is also treated in the code. No child under 12 may work on farms or ranches and none under 14 may enter industrial establishments, although children between 12 and 14 may be allowed to earn money under certain conditions. No child under 18 may be employed in work not approved by the council.

The prevention of tuberculosis and syphilis among children is to be under the jurisdiction of the council which, in its capacity as the supervising and controlling agency of all child welfare activities, shall also have authority over all private child welfare organizations.

BRIEF NOTES

EXPERIMENT STATIONS AUTHORIZED IN VENEZUELA

In view of the fact that coffee and cacao are two of the most important products of Venezuela, President Gómez decreed on September 13, 1934, the creation of two demonstration and experiment stations for coffee and one for cacao. They will be established at sites selected by the Ministry of Public Health and Agriculture to serve the regions where those products are grown. According to later information received, those for coffee will be established in the States of Táchira and Carabobo, that for cacao in Miranda.

PRISONERS' WELFARE MEASURES IN URUGUAY AND MEXICO

A decree of the Uruguayan Minister of the Interior creating the National Welfare Board for prisoners and ex-prisoners in Montevideo was signed by President Terra on March 7, 1934. It was established to lessen crime, especially repeated offenses; to secure work for ex-prisoners; to aid, in exceptional cases, families of prisoners awaiting trial or already sentenced; to sustain the morale of prisoners; to establish like organizations in other Uruguayan cities; and to create the Institute of Social Rehabilitation.

During the same month a measure was adopted in Uruguay creating a school for prison guards and for applicants for such positions.

A similar board was established to aid ex-prisoners in Mexico by a presidential decree of June 4, for which regulations were issued on the 11th. Its purpose is defined as "to give moral and material assistance to those who have completed a sentence or been pardoned or paroled, by directing them and protecting them so that they may take their places again in society."

THE PERUVIAN COUNCIL OF LABOR AND SOCIAL WELFARE

By a presidential decree dated January 22, 1934, the Supreme Council of Labor and Social Welfare was established in Peru to study the questions of a social character presented to Congress by the President of the Republic and all matters of an economic or a social nature submitted to it by the Ministry of Promotion.

The council was to be composed of the Minister of Promotion, chairman *ex officio*; The Solicitor of the Ministry in administrative matters; a magistrate appointed by the Superior Court of Lima; a delegate from the National Society of Industries; a delegate from the Society of Commercial Employees; and a delegate from the officially recognized labor organizations, the chief of the Bureau of Labor and Social Welfare acting as secretary. By a later resolution the Director General of Promotion and Labor and a delegate designated by the city of Lima were added to the council. Early in June the council submitted to the Government regulations for its procedure; these were officially approved on June 11.

THE ACADEMY OF HISTORY OF GRANADA, NICARAGUA

On June 26, 1934, President Sacasa of Nicaragua approved the constitution of the Academy of History of Granada. These had been submitted by the officers, Carlos Cuadra Pasos, director; Salvador Barberena Díaz, assistant director; Emilio Álvarez, treasurer; J. Bárcenas Meneses, secretary; and Carlos A. Bravo, Joaquin Gómez, Octavio Pasos Montiel, and José Coronel Urtecho, members of the executive committee.

PORTUGUESE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF BUENOS AIRES

The first course in Portuguese to be given in the public schools of Buenos Aires, in accordance with the decision of the National Council of Education, reported in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union for July 1934, was begun on June 7 in the School for Adults No. 3 of the IXth School Council. The course was opened with a ceremony at which the Ambassador of Brazil in Argentina, Dr. Bonifacio de Andrada e Silva, and the Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, Dr. Manuel de Iriondo, were guests of honor.

THE NATIONAL ARCHAEOLOGICAL COMMITTEE OF HONDURAS

The ruins of Copán, Honduras, were among the very first pre-Colombian monuments in Central America to attract archaeological attention. It is of interest, therefore, to note that the Government of that Republic has established the National Archaeological Committee, under the chairmanship of the Minister of Public Instruction, to keep in touch with institutions in other countries interested in archaeological studies and to suggest to the Government suitable measures for the restoration and conservation of the ruins at Copán and in other parts of the country. The decree is in accord with the Resolution on the Protection of Archaeological Records passed at the Fifth International Conference of American States which met in Santiago, Chile, from March 25 to May 3, 1923.

In an editorial published when the bill was presented to Congress, *El Cronista* of Tegucigalpa said, "The study of the ruins is important, but should be made on the spot and under official supervision. For that purpose the site should be demarcated properly, enclosed, and cleared. Since just at present it is not possible to open good roads to the zone of the antiquities, in order to stimulate tourist travel consideration should be given to establishing a good airport in the neighborhood."

COLOMBIAN UNIVERSITY COURSES OPEN TO WOMEN

In Colombia the universities have been closed to women until this year. In April, however, the President signed a decree providing for the establishment of a College of Education in the National Pedagogic Institute for Women. This higher institution will be considered part of the National University. The decree also provided that to a group of graduates from the institute who for three years have been doing advanced work in physics, chemistry, and biology, the Ministry of Education would grant the degree of *licenciada* in those subjects and that furthermore these students might acquire the doctorate in their specialities after fulfilling the regular requirements. (In Colombia the degree of licenciado is granted to students who have completed four years of university study. The bachelor's degree signifies only the completion of the 6-year secondary school course.) Alumnae of the institute who attend the supplementary courses and who have taken the prescribed undergraduate class work in education may enter the college of educational sciences for women.

At the end of May 1934, three young women received the first degrees granted in physics and chemistry. They were Srtas. Sara Noriega, Magdalena Briceño, and Josefina Rodríguez.

In the press of the United States it has been announced that courses leading to professional degrees in dentistry, nursing, pharmacy, and

social hygiene would be open in the autumn of 1934 to women in the University of Cauca, situated in Popayán. The new president of the university, Dr. Jeremías Cárdenas, recently returned to Colombia after studying educational methods and practices for many years in the United States.

MEXICO REGULATES HAZARDOUS OR UNHEALTHFUL OCCUPATIONS FOR WOMEN AND MINORS

On August 12, 1934, regulations dealing with hazardous or unhealthful occupations for women and minors went into effect in Mexico. They were particularly designed to protect women and minors under 16 against undue exploitation. The latter are especially protected from excessive physical strain by limits placed on the weights which they may handle in various occupations. The regulations also include provisions as to the legal number of working hours for women and minors of both sexes, places where they may not work, and tasks they may not perform, and provides the penalties to be exacted for noncompliance.

NEW WATER SYSTEM FOR BUENAVENTURA

On July 22 service by the new water works for the port of Buenaventura, Colombia, were officially opened. They were a part of the public works plan for the reconstruction of the city, which was almost entirely destroyed by fire in 1931, and were built at government expense under the direction of the Administrative Council of National Railways. The water comes from the Dagua River, about 12 miles from the city, and is taken to Lomalta, about 2 miles nearer Buenaventura, where the former equipment has been repaired and brought up to date. From the reservoir there the water flows by gravity to the purification plant on the outskirts of the port.

NECROLOGY

Dr. CALVIN W. RICE.—The death of Dr. Calvin W. Rice, a noted electrical engineer, occurred on October 2. At the time of his death he was executive secretary of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, a position he had held since 1906. He had been honored by engineering societies in many parts of the world; he was an honorary member of the Association of Members in Argentina of the National American Engineering Societies and the Club de Ingenieros of Rio de Janeiro, and a corresponding member of the Centro Ingeniero de Argentina and the Instituto de Ingenieros de Chile. He was greatly interested in promoting the study of Spanish, and had co-operated enthusiastically with the Pan American Union in that and many other matters.

Dr. JOSÉ MARÍA ESCALIER.—The eminent Bolivian physician Dr. José María Escalier died in Buenos Aires on September 3, 1934. Dr. Escalier was a native of Sucre, but received most of his education in Argentina. In spite of that fact, and his long residence in Buenos Aires, he retained his Bolivian citizenship, and served more than once as Minister of Bolivia in Argentina; he also took part in other diplomatic missions.



